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FINAL REPORT

Project No. 8-0610
Grant No. OEG-0-8-08-0610-4489 (010)

INTERPRETIVE STUDY OF COOPERATIVE EFFORTS OF PRIVATE INDUSTRY AND THE SCHOOLS TO PROVIDE JOB-ORIENTED EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

April 20, 1969

U. S. Department of Health,
Education and Welfare

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Project Directors

Dr. Trudy W. Banta and Dr. Douglas C. Towne

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Coordinating Unit
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April 20, 1969

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U. S. Department of Health,
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Douglas C. Towne
Trudy W. Banta

SUMMARY

This study embodies three major components: (1) an extensive literature review on the topics of job-related problems of the country's disadvantaged population and the programs which the federal government and private industry have designed to help solve these problems; (2) a nationwide survey of cooperative efforts of private industry and the schools to provide job-oriented education for the disadvantaged; and (3) three seminars, one in Knoxville, Tennessee, one in Denver, Colorado and one in New York City, designed to acquaint businessmen, educators, and other civic leaders in these communities with materials developed in the course of the study so that they might be encouraged to initiate cooperative job-oriented education programs of their own.

The review of literature begins with a description of the nation's disadvantaged population, with particular emphasis on the problems that keep these individuals from acquiring the jobs that would enable them to better their standard of living. The particular handicaps of such groups of disadvantaged individuals as the Appalachian white, the Indian, and the urban Negro are outlined. Finally, an assessment is made of various attempts by government and industry to aid the disadvantaged in overcoming the handicaps that keep them unemployed or underemployed.

The literature review provided direction for the design of two questionnaires which were used to gather information from the school and from the company involved in 64 exemplary industry-school training and education programs for the disadvantaged. These programs were located in 22 states throughout the country. The majority of these cooperative ventures were found to exist in the nation's largest cities, but business and the schools in smaller communities should be encouraged to team up to make vocational training more relevant to the world of work, thereby helping to keep potential dropouts in school; and to enhance the employability of the hard-core unemployed. Efforts such as these can help to prevent migration to urban slums of disadvantaged individuals from smaller communities who are dissatisfied with their present lot but are ill-equipped to better their lives in the urban setting.

In order to stimulate more interest throughout the country in cooperative job-oriented education programs, the three dissemination seminars were held in urban areas having diverse groups of disadvantaged individuals. Leaders in private industry, the schools, and important civic action groups were brought together to consider the job-related problems of the disadvantaged in their own communities. This mix of seminar participants appears to have been productive of action because a number of significant steps toward new cooperative efforts in behalf of the disadvantaged have resulted from the seminars.

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Even a cursory examination of recent newspapers and magazines reveals the mounting concern in this nation for improving the lot of those citizens whose social, educational, and economic condition is far below the American average. The plight of the disadvantaged has come to be recognized as a vicious circle in which low native capacities, poor family and neighborhood background, minimal educational opportunities, weak motivation to learn, poor health, and social barriers to the use of one's capacities all contribute to low earning ability; and low income in turn perpetuates its antecedent conditions. With this recognition has come a desire on the part of many Americans to break this chain that maintains poverty. Spurred by the soaring costs of welfare and the growing unrest in the urban ghettos, leaders in both the public and private sectors of the economy are calling for the most extensive attempt this nation has ever made to provide jobs and training for the disadvantaged.

In January 1968 President Lyndon B. Johnson asked Congress for a $2.1 billion manpower program "...to help Americans who want to work get a job (New York Times, 1968)." And since six out of seven working Americans are employed by private industry, President Johnson felt that jobs for the unemployed could and should be made available by the private sector. "Industry knows how to train people for the jobs on which its profits depend,"said President Johnson, and therefore, "government-supported on-the-job training is the most effective gateway to meaningful employment."

In its March 1968 report the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders prescribed creation of more jobs for the disadvantaged as one of the steps needed to alter ghetto conditions and reduce the possibilities of further bloodshed in the cities (Knoxville News Sentinel, 1968).

Lack of education is one important reason why some individuals are unemployed and/or have extremely low incomes. Many of the disadvantaged have had an opportunity to acquire an education in the public schools but have turned it down by dropping out as soon as possible because the programs offered did not seem to fit their needs. This nation has a tremendous responsibility to assist that part of the population which has been unable to profit from traditional school curricula in finding gainful employment. Earning one's own way imparts to an individual a sense of personal worth, of satisfaction, of responsibility. Enabling more and more of the previously unemployed to experience this sense of satisfaction is essential to the task of quieting the unrest that today exists among the disadvantaged of our country.

As businessmen have recognized that the economic health of the country is vital to the health of their own companies, many corporations have already initiated programs designed to train and employ the disadvantaged. However, if, along with his job training, the worker is not given the basic education in communication skills, applied arithmetic, etc., that will allow him to adapt to change, then when technological advances make his job obsolete he may not be able to make the adjustment that would allow him to remain employed. In providing this basic education component of a program designed to enhance the employability of the disadvantaged the education community can serve business as a powerful ally.

While the schools have experienced some failures in dealing with the disadvantaged, they still employ a good number of those who know most about how humans learn. And work-study programs sponsored by private industry often have much more appeal than traditional school curricula for the disadvantaged individual because he is enabled to earn wages for performing useful work while he learns, thus enhancing his image of himself as a worthwhile person.

The alliance of private industry and the schools has produced many excellent job-oriented education programs (i.e., programs designed to enhance the employability of disadvantaged individuals through job training and related educational experiences) for the potential school dropout, the hard-core unemployed, and the underemployed. However, the majority of businessmen and educators throughout the country probably are not aware of the variety of cooperative training ventures that have been attempted because no detailed compilation of information about such programs now exists. This is the need which the first part of this study attempts to fill.

Part One of the study consists of five sections. The first four sections encompass an extensive review of current literature which provides the foundation for the entire study. The fifth section is a report of a nation-wide survey designed (1) to identify those job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged sponsored by coalitions of private industry and the schools and (2) to provide descriptive information about each program which could be used for future reference by business and school leaders interested in initiating such programs in their own communities.

A discussion of "Disadvantagement" (Section I) begins the review of literature. A commonly accepted operational definition of disadvantaged individuals is presented; shortcomings of this definition are discussed, and alternative ways of perceiving disadvantagement are offered. It is maintained, for example, that disadvantagement represents the interactions occuring among many factors such as health, education, family relationships, self-image, intelligence, social barriers, discrimination, living conditions, and the "affluency gap." Interactions among the multi-faceted aspects of disadvantagement lead to a cyclical phenomenon: a life style that not only keeps the present disadvantaged from bettering their conditions but also hinders escape on the part of their offspring. Two major factors which help to assure that disadvantagement is self-perpetuating are the "self-fulfilling prophecy" and mis-directed motivation, i.e., motivation which results in selection of alternatives which are at odds with the dominant system of social values.

In designing or implementing programs to alter the conditions of disadvantaged persons it is desirable to be familiar with the characteristics of specific groups of the disadvantaged as well as with the concept of disadvantagement in general. In Section II, "Specific Disadvantaged Groups," such groups are singled out and their common characteristics, as well as their unique problems, are discussed.

Certain common problems are shared by all disadvantaged groups, but on the other hand, a minority group in one part of the country may experience problems quite different from those encountered by the same minority group in another area. The Negro in a rural setting differs from his counterpart in the urban setting. The same is true for the white. In addition the Indian and Puerto Rican have certain characteristics which must be taken into account. The migrant farm laborer exists in a relatively unique situation. Such factors are discussed in Section II and implications are offered for the design and implementation of programs to serve such specific disadvantaged groups.

"Federally Supported Job-Training Programs for the Disadvantaged," Section III, presents a review of existing programs which are designed in part to help ameliorate the difficulties of the disadvantaged. A rather comprehensive description of the various programs is presented along with an assessment of their effectiveness and shortcomings. Two major shortcomings suggested are lack of communication and lack of coordination. A summary table is included which is designed to communicate to the reader the role various programs might play in a coordinated approach to overcoming the problems of the disadvantaged.

Section IV, "Job Training for the Disadvantaged: Industrial Efforts," includes both a broad look at the present state of industrial training and a narrower look at specific industrial efforts in training minority group workers. The findings and recommendations of the Task Force on Occupational Training in Industry highlight the significant part that private industry can play in meeting such future national goals as maximum use of human resources. E. F. Shelley Associates conducted a nation-wide survey to analyze the state of industrial activity in hiring and training the disadvantaged. Their conclusions, based on responses from 224 companies, include recommendations relevant to the areas of corporate commitment and program components.

Following directions suggested by the literature review, two questionnaires were designed to gather information on 64 exemplary cooperative job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged. One questionnaire was mailed to a designated representative of the school involved in each program and a similar, yet distinct, instrument was sent to a representative of the company involved. A compilation of the information obtained via these instruments is contained in Section V of the Part One report, "Survey of Existing Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Programs." A significant communication gap presently exists between business and the schools, especially in the nation's largest cities, and only infrequently is this gap being bridged. When it is, however, both industry and the schools report benefits from the cooperation which results. Much more must be done by these two sectors to assure that those most desperately in need of employability training receive it.

In order to provide guidance for future utilization of the information compiled as a result of Part One activities, a trial component was added to the fact-finding phase. Part Two of this study involved conduct of three one-day seminars in order to test the seminar approach to disseminating information on cooperative job-oriented education programs.

Three widely separated urban communities, each attempting to cope with the problems presented by a different segment of the disadvantaged population, were chosen. Selected leaders of business and education in Knoxville, Tennessee, Denver, Colorado, and New York, New York, were called together to look at the report on existing job-oriented education programs in light of situations existing in their own city and to discuss the implications of the report for possible programs of a similar nature in that city. Included in the Part Two activities are an outline of procedures followed in setting up the seminars, an account of the proceedings of each of the meetings, and evaluative data.

The information in this report is designed to serve a number of audiences. Business executives and/or school administrators interested in setting up a seminar in their own communities may draw upon the report of Part Two activities for guidance in planning the seminar and upon the Part One report for background information and data to be used in the meeting itself. Personnel directors from industry, and curriculum supervisors and teachers from schools, who may be interested in the details of setting up and operating a job-oriented education program in their own situations could utilize the report on existing programs in Section V of the Part One report.

PART ONE

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND SURVEY OF COOPERATIVE JOB-ORIENTED EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

Section I. DISADVANTAGEMENT

DEFINITION OF DISADVANTAGEMENT

Identification of individuals as being disadvantaged is commonly accomplished by means of applying a definition such as that used in manpower programs. The manpower program definition requires three conditions, (1) the individual must be poor, (2) the individual must be without suitable employment, and (3) the individual must be either a school dropout, a member of a minority group, less than 22 years of age, more than 45 years of age, or handicapped. (Manpower Administration Order, 1968).

1. Poor. An individual is considered poor if the relationship between family net income, and a combination of family size and family location (farm versus non-farm), does not exceed that level shown in the table below. (A person is also poor if he is a member of a family receiving cash welfare payments).

Table 1

Family Size	Annual Net Income	
	Annual Family Cash Income	
	Non-Farm	Farm
Unrelated Individual	$1,600	$1,100
2	2,100	1,500
3	2,600	1,800
4	3,300	2,300
5	3,900	2,800
6	4,400	3,100
7	4,900	3,400
8	5,400	3,800
9	5,900	4,100
10	6,400	4,500
11	6,900	4,800
12	7,400	5,200
13	7,900	5,500

(Manpower Administration Regional Office Memorandum 2848, 1968)

2. Without Suitable Employment. Identification of a person as being without suitable employment provides two alternatives. The person may be unemployed (without employment of any significant nature), or he may be employed in a situation which is unsatisfactory (unsuitable employment). This second alternative is somewhat more judgmental than is the first. Two major questions which can be raised are: Who will determine if an individual is unsuitably employed...the individual or the agency, and what will be considered to be unsuitable employment?

3. To be classified as disadvantaged an individual must not only be poor and without suitable employment but must also be either a school dropout (less than high school graduation) or a member of a minority group (Negro, Spanish-American, Indian, etc.) or either too young (less than 22 years old) or too old (over 45 years old), or handicapped.

a. School dropout. Early departure from the formal school environment does not result in disadvantagement for all. If, however, a person is poor, without suitable employment and also a dropout, there is less chance that he will be able to remedy his unsuitable conditions.

b. Minority groups. History gives ample evidence of the difficulties encountered by members of minority groups in becoming integral parts of society: difficulties are still encountered by the Jew, the Irish, and the Italian. Other minority groups, which have more recently initiated active acculturation efforts, face the same difficulties and struggles. It is therefore held that if a poor person without suitable employment is also a member of a minority group, he will have greater difficulties in improving his conditions, just as in the case of the school dropout.

c. Age. Research and statistics indicate that individuals less than 22 and more than 45 years of age have greater difficulty in becoming employed than do those in the age group from 22 to 45. It therefore holds that a poor person without suitable employment who is also too "young" or too "old" will have difficulty in altering his situation, as in the case of the school dropout and minority group member.

d. Handicapped. The physically, mentally or otherwise handicapped person will, by definition, have added difficulties in overcoming income and employment deficiencies. To be handicapped is to be different from the average person, and since society and its components are designed for the average person, remedial actions are required to alter either the individual, so that he may function more like the average person, or society and its components, so that the handicap does not prevent the individual from functioning in a manner similar to the average person.

The elements of this definition of the disadvantaged are helpful but leave much to be desired. They leave considerable room for individual judgments and thus misinterpretations, and for great variance from situation to situation. The elements are also rather broad and are in need of greater specification if the purpose is to identify only those that are "really disadvantaged." (This may not be a valid purpose for this definition).

The most obvious aspect of this definition is the relative nature of disadvantagement. Not only do income limits vary with size of family and location (farm versus non-farm) but also with geographic location, i.e., many localities utilize other income levels which reflect more accurately the local costs of living. The degree of disadvantagement resulting from dropping from school is of course relative to when the person left school, how long he had spent in school and the kind and quality of preparation he had received prior to departure. In the pluralistic society of the United States all persons belong to some minority group, and so it is necessary to interpret this condition relative to many other factors. Age is also relative to the types of employment available in a specific community and the tradition and expectations of that culture. Being handicapped is also relative, not only in the nature of the handicap, but in degree.

In the context of this definition then, a person is disadvantaged if he is presently in an unsatisfactory economic situation (poor and without suitable employment) and if he also possesses a personal characteristic (school dropout, minority group member, young or old, or handicapped) which is likely to hinder his ability to alter this unsatisfactory economic situation.

THE DISADVANTAGED INDIVIDUAL

The disadvantaged person lives according to his own life style, which a map of his total past experiences. Unfortunately for him, and also for the society which must either carry him or bear the guilt of his family's hunger, his life style is unacceptable in terms of the requirements for successful productive middle class living. In this race for economic and social acceptance, advancement, promotion, achievement and security, he is surpassed by those who have learned the rules of the game early and well. For example, a child reared in a home where there is a constant awareness of time, of the need for productive work and for abiding by the rules, where superior achievement is expected, and where self-respect and dignity are exemplified will perpetuate these concepts in his adulthood. He will be likely to spend his time working hard and obeying the rules and will be called "highly motivated" by our society. On the other hand, the disadvantaged child is raised in a home where time has no special meaning, where work is either non-existent or menial and lacking in challenge, where futility is a bedfellow, and where failure has been the result of each family endeavor. Competition between the disadvantaged and the affluent is thus strangely analogous to the plots in adventure movies in which a man finds himself in a primitive, alien country surrounded by hostile natives. To earn his right to live, he must win a local contest, competing with the strongest, most skilled and experienced natives. In the movies, the hero wins in spite of the odds, but in reality, in the current American contest for success, jobs, and health, the odds so defeat the disadvantaged competitor that he gives up before the whistle is even blown.

When the disadvantaged person drops out, he is often said to be "not motivated," or "lazy." The terms are inaccurate; energy is expended in every human act, and it is the choice of acts wherein lies the difference between individuals. Instead of being unmotivated, the man is choosing rewards that are different from the typical ones offered by our industrialized environment, e.g., financial gain, improved status, better standard of living, etc. In his book, Work and the Nature of Man, Herzberg (1966) states

> ...perhaps the greatest contribution that the behavioral scientists have made during the last half-century of research on the industrial scene has been to broaden the concept of the needs and nature of man from a solely economic organism to one that encompasses some of the more human aspects---the emotional and social needs (p.43).

At the risk of over-simplification for the sake of brevity, it may be stated that man is directed by primary drives (hunger, thirst, sex, survival) and secondary drives (acquired characteristics) and that each act takes place in response to a stimulus. The variety of responses from which he chooses may be compared to the various channels on a television set, and the choice taken is influenced by the unique needs, values, and experiences of that man.

Motivation involves an expenditure of human energy, initiated by a desirable future condition. Obviously all people are motivated, but their choices of desirable future conditions vary to extreme degrees. The career-oriented man who invests much of his time and energy toward advancement of his professional reputation is motivated by the future reward of an estate to leave to his children, or a kind of monumental proof of a productive life. Conversely, the young ghetto resident who chooses to stay out of work to spend the day with his woman is motivated by the closer reward of pleasure and of the proof of his manhood which may be threatened by a meaningless work role at the bottom of the industrial ladder. Both men are motivated, both are expending energy toward the achievement of the desired future condition, both have made a value judgment. Both men are acting according to early patterns of expectancy, thought habits, goals and experiences which have been imprinted upon them by their environment as they choose from an array of possible actions available to them. Human energy accumulates and must be expended, and any discussion of motivation must include the factor of psychic energy, the challenge of exploration and risk-taking. Man is not the rat in the maze reinforced by reward and punishment; he is not the donkey following the carrot suspended in front of his nose. He is a unique being with his own chemical and psychic reactions, who somehow must find meaning in his life in any way that he can.

The condition of disadvantagement is multi-faceted: poor health, inadequate education, poor family relationships, adverse self-image, misdirected motivation, impaired intelligence, social and employment barriers, ethnic discrimination and inferior living conditions severely handicap the disadvantaged person. At a time when living standards are rising for the rest of society, the disadvantaged person lives with failure, with ignorance of ways to correct his situation, and with despair, thus creating the same self-defeating environment for his children and perpetuating the cycle of futility. Millions of such Americans are living in a hopeless inertia of misery, whether in the tight rooms of the ghetto, in the lonely cabins of the rural South and Appalachia, on Indian reservations or in the squalor of migratory work settlements. Instead of becoming acculturated, they sink further into withdrawal, alienated from the economy, from the educational system, from political power, from social mobility, and often from each other.

Isolation is both a psychic and a physical reality for the disadvantaged person. For the rural Negro, there is the subtle but extant segregation imposed by white racism; for the American Indian, the painful stereotype and the confining reservation, for the Appalachian, desolate miles of separation, and for the urban Negroes and whites, the invisible ghetto boundaries. For nearly all of them there is the language barrier. Many do not speak English at all, or speak it as a second language, as in the case of Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, and American Indians. Negroes and rural whites (including those who have migrated to northern urban areas) speak English with such a dialect and such a disturbed syntax that communication with teachers and employers is seriously impeded. Such barriers as discrimination and prejudice cause further alienation from the rest of society.

Developmental Factors

The disadvantaged person is thus a composite of the layered adverse experiences of his life, experiences never known by most middle class people. Acceptance of this fact is necessary before his education can be made more relevant, before his job training can be made effective, before he can become an enthusiastic, contributing member of an industry's production force. Following such acceptance, rehabilitation must take place in the same sense that accident victims are rehabilitated to compensate for physical handicaps suffered in the accident, because disadvantaged people are handicapped in many areas of their lives.

Pre-school Years

Health

The handicaps begin at birth, with poor prenatal and postnatal care. Obstetrical complications, prematurity, and crowded, substandard, unhygenic living conditions are factors which physically weaken the disadvantaged in his infancy. Inadequate nutrition is a serious factor affecting both his genetic endowment of intelligence and his physical condition. Poor nutrition is due to inadequate family income and also to ignorance of the mother in budgeting, shopping, planning, and preparing a balanced diet. The illiteracy of many disadvantaged housewives prevents the utilization of nutritious recipes. They cook familiar, cheap dishes; consequently their food is low in protein and high in starches.

In his book, Health and the Education of Socially Disadvantaged Children, Herbert Birch (1967) points out that the poor health of the disadvantaged child is a primary factor in his educational failure. He further states that while severe malnutrition in the United States is rare, sub-clinical malnutrition among low-income groups (particularly iron deficiency) may be a factor in their high childhood morbidity rates, in constitutional differences between Negroes and whites, and in the maldevelopment of the disadvantaged child's nervous system and therefore, his learning potential.

There are fewer physicians serving disadvantaged communities. Lack of transportation to indigent medical centers and lack of parental supervision are additional problems. Young children are often left in the care of older children, due to employment of both parents, employment of the mother necessitated by the father's desertion of the family, or parental neglect.

Early Learning

During the disadvantaged child's pre-school years the racial, political, religious and ethical attitudes of the parents are imprinted on him, as they are on all children regardless of the economic, social, and cultural status of the family. The phenomenon of imprinting, as this process of early learning is called, functions as a "blueprint" that shapes future responses of the individual and thus is fundamental to determining what kinds of motivation are possible in the individual's subsequent years. A middle class child raised in a home where rules are respected and enforced, where productive work is a valued regular contribution of the father, where education is esteemed, and where self-discipline and awareness of time are exemplified, will obviously conduct himself differently from the disadvantaged child coming from the home where perhaps there is no clock, where the father has no regular, meaningful work, and where education is only a number of required years wasted in the classroom. In addition to these work, time, and education concepts, the disadvantaged child is imprinted with his parents' sense of failure, defeat, and futility, and with the lethargy resulting therefrom. The tendency of his parents to live only for the present moment is imprinted on the disadvantaged child when his homesick migrant parents spend welfare money on a long distance call to relatives back home; or when his father spends a week's pay on whiskey, missing the next week's work; or when the family impulsively moves to another town, fleeing debt and failure. Due to lack of privacy in the crowded home environment, the disadvantaged child is exposed to sexual activities of adult family members, to acts of anger and violence, and to general sordid family disorganization.

An additional imprint and one that is apparently intense, is the feeling of rejection and inferiority that many disadvantaged people suffer, especially members of minority groups. A vivid example of this damaged self-concept is found in a study by Coles (1967) involving the drawings of young Negro children who were observed drawing pictures of themselves without an arm or leg, or smaller than their figures of white children. In all disadvantaged homes, regardless of race, there appears to be a sense of inferiority. Accompanying this feeling of being a "second-class citizen" is a natural hostility toward those classes and races which enjoy a feeling of superiority. The disadvantaged home discourages the development of individual dignity, personal worth, commonly accepted values and social habits which help others to be accepted and to succeed in American society.

School Years

Reaching school age presents a new set of problems to the disadvantaged child. Since imprinting tends to shape the perception of subsequent experiences, he is adversely prepared for school. In the arduous competitive learning system which is designed to culminate in graduation, individual development and gainful employment, the disadvantaged child is behind the middle class child before he even begins first grade. His self-image does not include potential for achievement. He has had no experiences outside his neighborhood, no cultural preparation. His relationship with his parents has been rigid and somewhat fear producing; this fear of authority is transferred to his teachers.

Communication

Communication in disadvantaged homes is limited to elementary matters of physical necessity. Language is restricted to brief, direct statements, and the child is not encouraged to express himself or to exercise curiosity. Consequently, he is poorly equipped to participate in the more elaborate language of the classroom, to ask questions, or to take part in any lively give-and-take academic discussions.

An additional language problem exists for disadvantaged students who speak English only as a second language. Thousands of American Indian and Spanish-speaking children can only speak broken English. Many Negro children share this handicap, as they speak English with such a dialect and such a disturbed syntax that communication between them and their white teachers is greatly impeded. The language barrier prevents learning in additional ways: textbooks, written in standard English, are difficult for disadvantaged children to grasp. The pioneer program of two teachers in a rural Florida school illustrates this language problem. Unable to understand much of what their Negro students said, they developed a language program in which they taught English as if it were a foreign language. (Although this program did not begin on a wide scale until fall of 1968, administrators have been receiving up to 25 letters a day from teachers and administrators interested in the technique of the program, especially from the large Northern cities which have received the bulk of rural Negroes migrating from the South) (Morton, 1968). Success in school is nearly out of reach for children who have not mastered standard English as it is used by schools.

Health

Another handicap suffered by the school-age disadvantaged child is his poor health. Studies show that a systematic relationship exists between a child's nutritional inadequacy and both neurological malnutrition and learning competency. According to Birch (1967), malnutrition and maldevelopment adversely affect the disadvantaged child's nervous system and therefore, his learning potential. Frequent, lengthy absences due to illness put him farther behind in the learning process. Such lost learning time, aggravated by absence of cultural support at home, is nearly impossible for him to overcome and often results in grade failure. Repeating one or more grades reinforces his developing self-concept of defeat, and carries the additional punishment of separation from his friends and age-mates. School thus becomes an unpleasant, defeating experience from which he will escape when given the chance and an alternative choice. The National Educational Research Division (1963) has made the following observation:

> ...Any pupil retarded two years by the time he reaches the seventh grade is unlikely to finish the tenth grade and has only negligible chance of finishing high school. If the pupil is retarded three years, he is not likely to enter the ninth grade (p.8).

Self-fulfilling Prophecy

A serious consequence of his lack of success in school is the developing self-image of failure of the disadvantaged student. Such an image has roots in the early childhood imprints, but is reinforced by placement of the student in the bottom or "slow" group of the class where the teacher seems to be endorsing the child's bleak self-concept. There is evidence to suggest that the teacher's expectation of the student has subtle, yet powerful effects on the student's achievement. An experiment conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) provides evidence that one person's expectations of another's behavior may come to serve as a self-fulfilling prophecy. The experiment consisted of administering intelligence tests to children and then giving the teachers the names of several children who could be expected to make unusual strides in intellectual development during the year. The specially designated children were not selected on the basis of the test scores, but were merely picked at random; however, later intelligence tests showed that the specially designated children (who had not been told of their expected progress) did actually gain more IQ points than the non-designated children. The conclusion drawn from the experiment, i.e., that when children were expected by teachers to show greater intellectual development, those children did show such development, has several implications. Children respond to the teacher's expectations of them. The teacher apparently can convey her expectation to the student without being aware of it and the student is influenced, doing what is expected of him without realizing that demands have been made.

If the students whom the teacher expects to bloom actually do bloom, then it is logical to conclude that those students who appear to the teacher to be lacking in potential and mental ability will not bloom. There could be many reasons for a teacher's expectation of failure of a disadvantaged student. Poor health; fatigue resulting from sleeping in a crowded, noisy room; hunger; inability to communicate; difficulty in understanding instructions and textbooks; and withdrawal into shyness could present an image of dullness to the middle class teacher. (Just as these factors in his father could present an image of dullness to his job foreman). Even inadvertent, unconscious categorization of the student into the "slow" group could result in the suppression of the child's talent over a period of years until the child expects and achieves only failure. An additional causative factor in the teacher's low expectation of the disadvantaged student might be low scores on IQ tests. In a paper on the development of intelligence, Ernst Caspari (1968) notes evidence for both genetic and environmental influence on that component of intelligence which we measure by means of IQ tests. He compares the development of intelligence to learning to talk: the ability to learn to speak is genetically determined, but the particular language a child learns is completely dependent on his environment.

Thus IQ scores depend both on genetic intellectual endowment and on the learning environment. Inadequate prenatal care and diet of the mother can result in actual lowered intelligence of the infant; however, average intelligence can be diminished (in intelligence testing scores) by a paucity of cultural experiences. In a study of disadvantaged children, Martin Deutsch (1963) found them to have inferior auditory discrimination and inferior judgment concerning time, number, and other basic concepts. He found the inferiority due, however, not to physical defects of eyes, ears, and brain, but to inferior habits of hearing, seeing, and thinking. These habits are learned and therefore can be corrected. If such inferior habits predispose the disadvantaged child to poor achievement in early school years, to lower scores on early-administered intelligence tests, and to consequent expectations of "slowness" however, he may never have the opportunity to correct them. He may instead live up to the school's and to his own expectation of failure.

Alienation

The greater the incidence of failure (and expectation of future failures) in school, the greater the desire of the student to avoid it. Individuals choose their experiences on the basis of the avoidance of failure, pain, punishment or cost, and of the achievement of satisfaction, gratification, success, reward (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959). Although the disadvantaged youth may have been reared in an environment of futility and defeat, with a pattern of failures already extant in his own life, he still will avoid a new failure if there is a less painful or more satisfying alternative. This selection from alternative choices is the basis for all human activity, regardless of degree of advantagement or disadvantagement, and is based on the individual's own concept of the possibilities of success or failure in the activity. The "reward-oriented" individual can be described as one who acts to obtain satisfying things for himself, paying more attention to potential rewards than to potential costs. The "cost-oriented" individual keeps his standards for satisfaction and performance relatively low, paying more attention to potential costs than to potential rewards. Canavan (in preparation) suggests that people are taught by others how to look at and evaluate their experiences. If a disadvantaged youth, taught by others to expect failure, can find a less costly and more rewarding alternative, he will take it. If he is too young to drop out of school legally, he may stay out for more rewarding, short periods (just as his father may stay out of a self-defeating job, if a more rewarding or more immediately gratifying alternative is offered him).

In addition to the punishing aspect of low teacher expectation, the disadvantaged student may find punishment in the teacher-student relationship itself. The most conscientious middle class teacher will sometimes lack insight into the frustrations and warped self-images of her disadvantaged students, particularly when those frustrations result in troublemaking and underachievement. In spite of the empathy she may have with these students, her middle class background prevents her having knowledge of the difficulties that are causing them to be irritable, fatigued, or hostile in the classroom. Other teachers, though academically competent, may be undeclared racists, feeling that they are "throwing their training and experience down the drain" as one teacher was overheard to say after being transferred from a middle class suburban school to a slum school. Unbiased teachers who are dedicated to helping disadvantaged children may be prohibited from tending to their emotional and social needs by overcrowded classes and by the pressure to teach subject matter.

The nature of the subject matter contributes still another factor in the alienation of the disadvantaged student from the educational system. In Knowing the Disadvantaged, McCreary (1966) states that:

> ...The experiences which disadvantaged young people have had with social disorganization, human failing, psychological and economic dependency, welfare programs, and law enforcement do not necessarily lead to cynicism, but they do build up an awareness and sophistication which are likely to be more realistic, poignant, and immediate than the treatment of social problems in school textbooks. Probably many such youths have more understanding and know-how about some social realities than middle class youths or many teachers. Their knowledge may lead them to a negative attitude toward unrealistic book-learning or the saccharine optimism characteristic of some 'citizenship training' which glosses social realities (p. 50).

To his early experiences in the crowded, unhygenic, disrupted, constricted home environment, the disadvantaged youth has added a wide-ranging practical knowledge of many areas of public and private living. He has had firsthand experiences involving intoxicated relatives; hostile, violent individuals; suspicious law enforcement officers; depravity; stigma; degradation; and raw human emotions. Because of less firmly structured patterns of family life and often because of the absence of a reliable father figure in the home, he has attained a premature maturity, an early independence, an unshielded vision of things as they are, and a pragmatic emphasis on the immediate and the concrete.

The Dove Counterbalance General Intelligence Test, or "Chitlin Test" as it is sometimes called, illustrates the ghetto youth's familiarity with the "backside of the affluent society." A parody of middle class intelligence tests, this "measure of cultural involvement in the poor folks' and soul cultures" includes such questions as:

A "Gas Head" is a person who has a __________________.
(a) Fastmoving car
(b) Stable of "lace"
(c) "Process"
(d) Habit of stealing cars
(e) Long jail record for arson (1968)

The disadvantaged youth has developed qualities that are necessary adaptations to the kind of life he has had to live: pride in strength, fighting ability, suspicion of strangers, reliance on practical knowledge, and distrust of intellectual skills. Such an attitude was articulated by a Negro dropout recently enrolled in an industry training program, when he said to his counselor, "Everything I know that is useful is what I learned in the street."

This feeling of separation from the successful American "system" has created a strong need in the disadvantaged youth for close association with other youths of similar background and experience. His identification with peer groups begins much earlier and is much deeper than that of middle class youths. From the peer group he derives his values and attitudes. To the peer group he feels an overriding loyalty, a loyalty that often focuses hostility and resistance to the standards and authority of the school, especially if the school fails to afford opportunities for expression, recognition, respect, and success for the disadvantaged.

Such disillusionment with school is characteristic of disadvantaged youth. Although this estrangement is complex in origin, in many ways it is invited by the school itself. In this connection Strom (1964) has pointed out,

> Competition is a virtue of school programming. It is unfortunate we eliminate much competitive potential of youngsters from slum areas. We do this failing to recognize certain strengths emerging from their background. When these strengths are declared off-limits, they become non-functional and the child is forced to compete at a disadvantage by using strengths characteristic to the middle class (p. 191).

Punishments resulting from the disadvantaged youth's competition against such odds are multi-faceted: academic failure, nonpromotion, repeating of one or more grades, removal from peer group, and negative self-concept. These punishing aspects of school will lead to the student's alienation from school, his nonparticipation in school programs, and his ultimate withdrawal, as has been stated previously. Without remediation of substandard academic skills and relevant vocational skills, these students are lost, their potential unrecognized, destined to become second-class citizens.

Lowering of academic standards to minimize failure is not the solution to the problem, however. In a recent article, Dr. Kenneth B. Clark (1968) refers to the importance of holding ghetto youths to standards of production and performance in industrial training and in the educational system, in order to make them understand that they are being taken seriously as human beings.

> This is an important but subtle point. I suspect that the significant breakdown in the efficiency of public education came not primarily from flagrant racial bigotry, but from the sloppy sentimentalistic good intentions of educators who reduced standards in the education of low-income and minority-group youngsters, and on the grounds that teachers should not demand of these children what they demand of suburban children, which made it possible for non-education to be alibied. These casualties are the result of good intentions (p. 30).

A further cause for the disadvantaged student's alienation from school is the school's failure to encourage his pride in his race. In an article, "Ghetto on the Mesa," Jerry Eaton (1968) makes the following statements about the American Indian.

> Bureaucratic red tape, insufficient federal funding, and national neglect saddle American Indians with Mickey Mouse communications systems, Keystone Kops roads, and Merry Mixup schools determined to make the Indian wear a tight white collar and Ivy League trousers. Very often, the Indian emerges from such schools ashamed of his heritage which his teachers have belittled. Unsure of his identity, he ponders whether he is Indian or Anglo, rural or urban, a ward of the government or a man free to walk straight and tall (p. 35).

The growing protest among Negroes over the lack of courses in Negro history in the school curriculum testifies to this belittling factor in their schools also.

The conditions leading to a student's dropping out of school are too complex to be covered here. The concern is not as much with his dropping out as with his general alienation from the school which has become an unrewarding experience for him. Alienation from school (possible even among those students who remain physically in school while dropping out mentally) expands to alienation from society in general and from himself as well. As he reaches adulthood, the disadvantaged person is not equipped for a productive, positive role in the American economy. His life has been a series of disillusioning, punishing experiences, layered one upon the other. As his alienation has developed, his human need for avoidance of pain has directed him to choose more satisfying routes. His multiple handicaps have set him upon a course which seems inevitably to lead to chronic unemployment.

The complex plight is manifest in the findings of the Minneapolis Rehabilitation Center (Walker, 1965). The Center found that the hard core unemployed people they tested had long histories of severe and multiple problems, only one of which was unemployment. The majority had suffered lifelong difficulties in marriage and family relationships, school and social experiences, and physical disabilities. On the basis of these findings, the Center described their unemployment as a symptom of more basic psychological and social deficiencies.

Without remedial academic training, job skill training, and psychological rehabilitation, the disadvantaged person is not a good candidate for employment even if recruited. Qualified for none but the most meaningless tasks at the bottom of the industrial ladder, he is subject to lay-offs if he is able to obtain a job at all. His history of failure and the resulting negative self-image cause him to have poor incentive, to suffer personality conflicts with foremen and other employees, and to be branded as a failure by superiors and co-workers. The self-fulfilling prophecy of such expectations of failure has already been demonstrated in the classroom. The same poor performance will be elicited in the factory. The evidence is clear that what one person expects of another has subtle, yet powerful effects on the other. When work, too, becomes an unrewarding, punishing experience, the disadvantaged adult will again choose a less painful, more gratifying alternative. He will stay out of work for short periods, or drop out altogether, bouncing from job to job if he is lucky enough to find them, or he will join the ranks of the young unemployed who populate the street corners of the ghetto, the Indian reservation, or the rural habitat, succumbing to lethargic or hostile futility.

Every act of the disadvantaged person deepens his rut of defeat and isolates him further from the productive, successful way of life that is available to so many Americans. Withdrawal, despair and futility line the walls of his world. Into this world he takes a wife, whom he cannot support, and who is as ill-prepared as he to provide a responsible, planned home environment. The child that is born to them seems destined, as his father before him, to repeat the same cycle of failure.

Employment

Self-improvement is fundamental to the American middle class way of life. Interpreting the causative experiences of disadvantagement according to his own standards, the successful businessman may conclude that the abject condition of the disadvantaged individual is that person's own fault. But as has been indicated in the foregoing pages, the cumulative aspects of disadvantagement make it too late for that individual to rectify the problem by the time he reaches the age of responsibility. Society must bear the responsibility for changing the system which is forcing its poor into second-class citizenship. Housing, education, welfare, health care and other areas affecting these people must be changed creatively in order to develop the type of self-respecting, productive, responsible individuals they have a right to be. Such renovation is too complex to be examined in this paper, however. The nature of work, the disadvantaged person's role in work, and effective job training will be the areas for attention.

In an article entitled "The Role of Work in a Mobile Society," Marc Fried (1966) cites the increased importance of work for a growing proportion of the population at the same time that a large labor force has diminished in technological importance. He described the unemployed "not merely as economically disadvantaged but as people caught in the interaction of cultural deprivation and unpreparedness for jobs that might provide them with an adequate income (p. 82)." Of the present paradoxical situation wherein a high rate of unemployment exists with economic expansion and affluence, Harrington (1962) states,

> One might summarize the newness of contemporary poverty by saying: These are the people who are immune to progress. But then the facts are even more cruel. The other Americans are the victims of the very inventions and machines that have provided a higher living standard

> for the rest of society. They are upside-down in the economy, and for them greater productivity often means worse jobs; agricultural advance becomes hunger (p. 12).

In spite of evidence that businessmen recognize the plight of the economically deprived, multiple problems consequent to such hiring efforts, e.g., absenteeism, communications problems, personality conflicts, and the slow adaptability of newly-hired disadvantaged, are making absorption of so-called hard core workers into the hiring industries difficult and filled with conflict at all levels.

They are enduring what Marc Fried (1966) refers to as the "pathology of urban life" arising out of the crises of transition in work and other social areas as people attempt an upward move. These crises of transition are particularly exemplified by northern slum residents who have migrated from rural areas only to find conditions worsened by their lack of experience in living and working in a technologically advanced and cosmopolitan environment. Fried states,

> Newcomers to the urban, industrial environment and their children form a large proportion of the lowest populations in cities. This is almost certainly as true today for migrants within the United States as it was prior to 1920 for foreign-born migrants. Extensive experience in the urban, industrial environment is, generally speaking, an essential prerequisite for upward social mobility in a modern society (p. 83).

Work Role Concepts

Social and psychological preparation is thus necessary for successful industrial work. So are other vital implements such as mastery of the English language (often needed by rural whites and Negroes, and migrants as much as by Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, Indians, etc.) and basic literacy skills. According to Fried, there are four levels of work role orientations in the industrial hierarchy, each of which must be mastered comfortably before the worker can move up to the next. A brief description of these four work role concepts follows:

1. Work as a job: the process of learning to obtain and hold a job. The transition from rural, sporadic work (or from unemployment to employment) requires the development of those expectations, skills, and abilities associated with obtaining and maintaining a job in a competitive market. It requires a shift in the thinking of the individual, a new set of values, a new conception of the meaning of restriction and freedom, a new basis for interaction and communication, especially among people of different occupational status. Also involved in the transition is the routinization of tasks and the conception of a distinctive job, separate from other life activities. (Rural manual work is often integrally related to other experiences and relationships with family, friends, neighbors, and kin, allowing a

different kind of freedom. It might not be unusual, for example, to find a farm worker taking two weeks off for the funeral of a distant relative.)

Anxiety and insecurity about job stability must also be overcome by the worker. Such factors as seniority, discrimination, and lay-offs place rural migrants and recently-hired hard core unemployed workers in a precarious position. Before this anxiety can diminish sufficiently to allow the worker a more expansive and exploratory attitude toward work, the basic skill of learning to obtain and hold a job must be generalized to a sense of security in the achievement.

2. Work as a task: the ability to shift from the most routinized performance of duties and obligations to a conception of various parts of the work process as pleasurable, as an opportunity for the development of manual or cognitive skills, and as a process that allows for a sense of mastery in the performance of tasks. Expectation of pleasure in mastery is the key element to this second level work concept, revealing the worker's sense of security, his orientation to work as a job, and his resulting psychological freedom to consider subtler, more challenging, and more rewarding potentialities in industrial work. Pleasure in mastery may be more difficult to achieve in routinized jobs than in those involving some choice and decision.

3. Work as an occupation: the development of responsibility for an entire work role. This level of work builds upon the previous concept's pleasure of mastery in task performance, and implies the development of a sort of work morality and an appreciation of the utilitarian contribution of the worker's activities to a larger social enterprise. Pleasure in the mastery of tasks must be subordinated to the fulfillment of larger, if less immediately gratifying, work objectives. There is also a new sense of social participation through work and increased potential for mastery and achievement of a total work role.

4. Work as a career: the identification of the individual's own personal achievement with the occupational role he fills. This level of work concept includes mastery of the three previous ones, providing immense intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to the individual, demanding at the same time a high degree of energy, time and dedication. Social participation and individual fulfillment become closely related.

According to Fried, then, the worker must master each work level and must feel comfortable within it before he can move on to the successive one. Successful efforts to upgrade the occupational qualifications of the disadvantaged build upon a natural process of transition. As Fried states,

> There is little likelihood that we can short-circuit the sequential nature of these processes or by-pass the important levels of experience in the urban environment, of educational background, and of the early development of work expectations and skills. At best, we can hope to

> encourage more effective transitions at each level of development through a deeper understanding of the total process and of the nature of social and psychological resources most vital to movement along the sequence of work role orientations (p. 91).

Alienation in Work

Within the work role, the employee finds greater satisfaction if his inherent abilities to think and to function can be brought into play. Many of our presently accepted institutions such as business, education, and government are based on the reward or punishment concept, with advancement, acceptance, promotion, and salary raises rewarding proper completion of the assigned task, and with non-acceptance, failure and dismissal resulting from unsuitable work. Such a concept does not include the broader responses of personal development, exploration, and other non-material gains, and can therefore result in alienation for those who do not understand it. An overly simple production job demanding a single, non-thinking role is thus placing the employee in a child-parent role wherein he may react like a child, resisting this "parental authority" and conducting himself in a stubborn, uncooperative manner. When the job is redesigned to give him a more mature role, he may respond by trying to prove worthy of it.

Both the employee and the company will benefit from a job which is concentrated less around the drive concept as narrowly related to reward and punishment and more around the idea of the employee as an energy storage system capable of a wide range of responses. Changing the nature of the job frequently, providing more breaks in routine, and giving ways to release energy through secondary drives such as challenge, curiosity, exploration, and self-expression, if they can be related to increased productivity, will enable the worker to develop his own personality while still expending his energies in the interests of the institution. Conversely, excessive narrowing of worker's skills and horizons tends to diminish impetus for meaningful work expectations, fostering alienation from work. In a recent study of several industries, Blauner (1964) found that some occupations fostered a sense of powerlessness, of meaninglessness, of social alienation and of self-estrangement in work, while these forms of alienation were absent in other occupational structures, revealing that work role opportunities are potent factors in the development of higher levels of work role orientations. This study further emphasized the need to provide wider opportunities for the use of abilities, skills, intelligence and imagination in jobs.

The need for a meaningful work role is pronounced among disadvantaged males, particularly Negro males, who suffer from the lack of conventional masculine roles. Denied prestige, acceptance in the community, and the ability to support their families, they are consequently thrown back upon sexual prowess and physical ability (often violent) to prevent feelings of emasculation. Increased earning ability, plus a challenging work role, made real through effective training, would help to restore the masculine self-concept in the disadvantaged male. There is reason to suspect that such a new kind of work incentive would also cut down on absenteeism among these men who are now working at the bottom of the hierarchical ladder.

Discrimination in Work

Discrimination is a factor in the present employment situation in the United States, although discrepancies in the qualifications of Negroes and whites have been diminishing in the past decades. In many companies, Negroes are still more poorly "rewarded" than whites of equivalent accomplishment, and this is further complicated by the fact that the same level of schooling does not necessarily mean the same educational preparation, according to Fried (1966). Percentages of unemployed Negroes exceed those of whites in most areas, although many corporations are now complying with Title VII of the Civil Rights Law and have written affirmative action policies in an endeavor to place Negroes in job vacancies. To compound the problem some Negroes, especially ghetto youth, are responding to recruiting programs with suspicion, fearing tokenism. Doubts of the genuineness of the white employer's program have apparently caused Negro youth to look for gimmicks and empty verbal promises, and to test an employer's acceptance of them. According to Negro psychologist Kenneth B. Clark (1968) they may engage in extreme forms of testing---exaggerating the negative in order to see the degree to which an individual is capable of controlling his racism ---in various guises: hostility testing, punctuality testing, and withdrawal testing. Dr. Clark interprets this exasperating method of testing the seriousness of the program as a sign of inner vulnerability reflecting the effects of past rejection, exclusion, and non-achievement. He suggests that those corporations which are serious about helping ghetto youth adapt to a constructive role in business demonstrate their intentions with remunerated training that is an integral part of the job, with remedial academic skills training, and with clearly articulated production, performance, and time standards that are important to general industrial efficiency. Dr. Clark concludes,

> If they are empathically held to standards, they will understand that they are being taken seriously as human beings...all human beings share a basic sense of their worthiness or unworthiness, a basic problem that will be settled only by constructive achievement, not by pretense...Once these youths are brought into businesses and industry and given whatever they require to function and to be judged as individuals, from that moment they must have the same degree of freedom of choice which other human beings in our society appear to have. The ultimate test of success will be when whites and Negroes observe the range of individual differences among Negroes with the same degree of acceptance that they grant to individual differences among whites (p.30).

Remediation

Inadequate preparation for effective functioning in an industrial environment is a problem in its own right, affecting millions of whites, Indians, etc., as well as Negroes, and one that should be understood apart from the problem of discrimination. Although creative changes in the established American social, cultural, educational, and welfare systems can reduce the conditions adversely affecting the nation's poor, thus improving their offspring, today's overemployment cannot wait for that generation. The disadvantaged applicant is here and must be dealt with today. To be employed productively he must first be understood as the product of his life, then rehabilitated and given the training which will help him realize his full potential.

Positive Reinforcement

Although the disadvantaged man's withdrawal, his alienation, his self-concept of failure, and his suspicion of strangers have given him poor work incentive and limited skills, his potential ability is as yet undetermined. There are, in fact, no known limits to an individual's potential, and by positive reinforcement of desired behavioral characteristics, a person can be further developed. If the work-training situation is properly structured so that his desired behavior is immediately rewarded, he will respond. Desired behaviors have been found to become more frequent when positive reinforcement immediately follows, and less frequent when there is a neutral or negative reinforcement. Therefore the disadvantaged employee should be positively reinforced as he moves through a training or work situation which is structured so as to move him upward, one step built upon the previously achieved one. Successful accomplishment of each phase will allow him to feel pride in himself, and enforcement of production standards will allow him to feel he is being used as a human being with work potential rather than carried as a charity case. He may need counseling, psychological and social rehabilitation, group or individual therapy in order to overcome his history of difficulties, but he still can be led, step by step, through the structured work situation, ultimately achieving the desired behavior.

Self-fulfilling Prophecy

The employee will live up to the expectations others have of him. The phenomenon of self-fulfilling prophecy was noted in the foregoing discussion of the effects of teacher expectations on the student. The theory applies to employees and their supervisors as well as students and teachers. Gumpert & Gumpert (1968) provide the following explanation of the positive effects of a teacher's expectations regarding improvement, applicable also to the work situation.

> If she expects a pupil to begin to improve, she may be avidly watching for signs of improvement while ignoring the pupil's usual inadequacies or failures. If she should see something that indicates improvement, she might be especially quick to reward it by

> her special attention and by her excitement at seeing her expectations begin to be fulfilled. This in turn might give the child new interest in this kind of performance, and might spur him on to new attempts to fulfill an expectation that he might now begin to perceive. Since the teacher is no longer paying as much attention to the child's failures, the child may now feel new room to grow, and indeed might grow with his burgeoning confidence about new learning and new power over his environment (p. 25).

The employee who is expected by co-workers and supervisor to succeed will improve under the reward of their attention and approval. Conversely, a disadvantaged employee who is branded as slow, lazy or dishonest will not receive such rewards and will find his job a punishing experience. Avoidance of failure and further punishment will provide him with little motivation to succeed. But a relevant, effective training program which is based on the industry's expectation of his potential ability will provide good work incentive and loyalty to the company as well as a better skilled employee.

Recommendations

On the basis of research regarding the nature of the disadvantaged individual and of existing training programs, the following recommendations for job training programs may be made:

1. A program should include a structured job situation which leads the employee into a higher work level after he has comfortably mastered the previous one.

2. A program must be genuine (not tokenism), and should include training, production, and remuneration.

3. A program should provide for remedial academic training when it is needed to compensate for the inferior education of most disadvantaged individuals.

4. A program should empathically hold participants to the performance, time and production standards that are important in general industrial efficiency. Special help such as counseling or guidance may be indicated at first.

5. A program must consider the individual's need for personal satisfaction and achievement in addition to monetary reward.

6. A program should involve sensitivity training of supervisors and co-employees in order to eradicate any preconceived notion they may have that the disadvantaged employee is bound to fail.

7. A program should incorporate the programmed development of desired behavior and performance, based on the concept that individuals will live up to what is expected of them and that there are no known limits to the potential of any individual.

8. A program must recognize the emotional handicaps suffered by many disadvantaged people and offer rehabilitation when needed.

Section II. SPECIFIC DISADVANTAGED GROUPS

Introduction

The poor of America have numerous unique problems, but no matter how diverse two disadvantaged groups may appear to be, they share many of the same concerns. The anthropologist Oscar Lewis (1966) sees the poor, no matter where they are located, as living in what he calls a "culture of poverty". This culture, he asserts, transcends regional, cultural, racial, and national differences. It is a way of life, passed from one generation to the next as are other aspects of culture. Thus, although the Appalachian white and the urban Negro may appear on the surface to be very different, in actuality their problems are remarkably similar. Their common concerns include little education, lack of skills, poor health, and misdirected motivation, and these are the factors which perpetuate the culture of poverty for these groups.

The preceding chapter has provided a general characterization of the plight of our country's disadvantaged population. The intent of this chapter is to identify specific disadvantaged groups throughout the nation and to outline the particular problems faced by each.

The disadvantaged populations of America can probably be divided best along rural and urban lines. Curiously enough all of America's disadvantaged racial groups will be found in both locales, save the Spanish-speaking Puerto Ricans and the Oriental Americans, who are almost exclusively urban dwellers.

The Rural Poor

It may surprise many Americans to know that there is greater poverty in rural areas than in our cities. In metropolitan areas 1 person in 8 is poor, and in the suburbs, 1 in 15 (Report by President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, 1967). In rural areas one of every four persons is poor (according to the standard of $3,000/annum/family which has been advanced by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare). About 30% of our total population lives in rural areas, but 40% of the nation's poor live there. The 14 million rural poor, 11 million of whom are white, include nearly 3 million families plus 1 million unattached persons. Most of the rural poor live in small towns and villages. Only 1 rural family in 4 lives on a farm.

The urban riots probably have their roots in rural poverty, since a high proportion of the people crowded into city slums today came there from impoverished rural areas. The total number of rural poor would be even larger had not such a large segment of this population moved into the city. Many individuals made the move because they wanted a job and a decent place to live. Some have found these things. Most have not. Many have merely exchanged life in a rural slum for life in an urban slum at exorbitant cost to themselves, to the cities, and to rural America as well.

There are three primary disadvantaged groups in rural America: the rural Negro, the rural "poor white", and the Indian. Constituting a rural "subgroup" is the migrant laborer who forlornly travels the highways of America in order to earn his daily bread. Since there are disadvantaged individuals who are Negro, Indian, and white in the southern states, the South will be used herein as the setting for characterization of the particular problems besetting the rural poor.

Although the South has undergone significant changes in urban-rural relationships, industry mix, politics, education, and vocational training, this portion of the country still lags behind the rest of the nation in economic and social well-being. Despite progress the South is still enmeshed with agrarian values and traditional racial views. If this region could somehow grasp the basic problem of unused manpower while it may still be manageable, growth in per capita income would occur and this might enable the South to reach parity in economic well-being with the nation as a whole.

The Rural Negro

Speaking of the disadvantaged Negro in a message to Congress shortly before his assassination, the late President John F. Kennedy stated,

> The Negro baby born in America today -- regardless of the section or state in which he is born -- has about one-half as much chance of completing college, one-third as much chance of becoming unemployed, and about one-seventh as much chance becoming employed at $10,000/year, as the normal American newborn. The Negro child has, in effect, a life expectancy which is seven years less and the prospects of earning only half as much as the white baby (The Congressional Record, 1963).

The Supreme Court decision of May 17, 1954, Brown vs. Topeka Board of Education (The Brown Case), ruled school segregation to be unconstitutional stating,

> To separate Negro children from others of similar age and qualifications solely because of their race generates a feeling of inferiority as to their status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. (Jackson, p.14)

Certainly one could assume that economic deprivation has an even more crippling effect on the hearts and minds of such children.

Much attention has been given recently to the plight of the urban Negro. No matter how desperate the urban Negro's circumstances, his rural Southern counterpart endures even worse conditions. Roger Beardwood, writing in the August, 1968 issue of Fortune (Beardwood, 1968), paints the following picture: those counties in the South with the highest percentages of Negro population are those counties in which poverty, illiteracy, and poor health are endemic. Squeezed between declining farm employment and racial and educational barriers which kept them from taking other jobs, 3,500,000 southern Negroes have fled north in the past generation. Their exodus has dramatically changed the ethnic composition of the United States. Seventy-seven per cent of all U. S. Negroes lived in the South in 1940; now just over half do. About 100,000 southern Negroes still move north each year. There is violence in the South (for the Negro), the kind that maims men's souls as well as their bodies. The men of Freedom City, the sharecroppers of North Carolina, the hungry children of Mississippi -- all have been grievously wounded by a society in which they have no voice. Only a handful of people are binding up those wounds, and trying to make whole again the victims of a collision between economics and apathy.

Since 1940 millions of black people have left the South, searching for freedom. Some have found it; some have found only more unhappiness and anguish. The economies of large-scale farming and the thrust of farm policies make continuing loss of jobs inevitable in the South. Today most dispossessed workers and their families will either sink into deeper poverty or move to the cities. However, they are ill equipped for urban life, and the cities are ill equipped to cope with them.

Despite continuing migration, some 7,100,000 Negroes of working age will be living in the South in 1975 -- 12% more than in 1960. About 3,900,000 will be in the labor force -- working or looking for work. The challenge to the South's political and business leaders is three-fold: to create new jobs, open a higher percentage of these jobs to Negroes, and ease the transition from rural to urban life with education and job training.

Jackson (p. 22) feels that

> ...the rural Negro child suffers from a disbelief in himself so real and so severe that his teachers have great difficulty in getting him to exercise his abilities to achieve the skills needed for effective living in an urban technological society.

When compared with his urban counterparts, the rural Negro pupil has achieved less in school, is less motivated and displays less ambition, and drops out of school earlier. Aspirations and attitudes are damaged and distorted in early childhood when one is born a Negro, born poor, or born in a rural area. When examined carefully, the damage to ego development and the lack of self-esteem is invariably traced to what can be referred to as rural-racial rejection.

The South has been a chief exporter of poorly developed labor and people to other regions. Although this emigration has raised per capita income rates (by removing many of the unemployed/semi-employed Negroes), the South today still suffers from the dual hardship of a backward economic structure and a system of race relations based upon segregation and discrimination. Even when the rural Negro is willing and able to work, he can't find a job; and if he is unable or unwilling to work, he is condemned rather than motivated. The very old and the very young relatives, friends, and neighbors live together in shabby farm houses, making an acute dependency problem for wage earners. For these reasons, many of the most able and productive migrate to the villages, towns and central cities.

Public assistance is too often unavailable to the rural Negro, and the birth rate is high (6.4 per non-white mother as compared to 3.3 per white mother). The mother usually knows very little about family planning, and is hindered by tradition and religion (Southern Regional Council, 1967).

Few traditional jobs are available to the Negro in agriculture, forestry, fishing and mining. The Negro possesses no skills to do the jobs available to him in the service occupations, manufacturing, and construction, and he has little access to schools which prepare workers for job opportunities.

The Appalachian Resident

The inhabitants of Appalachia, isolated for centuries by the mountains, and by their own inherent mistrust and suspicion of the outside world, are perhaps one of the most destitute of the various rural populations. The residents of Appalachia are an independent people, and have always guarded their independence zealously. Government has traditionally been looked upon with suspicion, and even today there are counties in eastern Kentucky which collect less money in taxes than are required to pay the salaries of their elected officials (Beardwood,1968).

Another ruinous factor at work in Appalachia is absenteeism. Toward the end of the last century the gigantic wealth of the region was discovered by huge economic interests in the east and in Europe. They bought up the vast deposits of coal, oil, gas, limestone, and iron ore at prices ranging from ten cents to a few dollars per acre. They extracted this natural wealth on terms which paid practically nothing to the Appalachian people except the meager wages. Long ago they were able to "fix" the governments of Appalachian counties and states. Their activities were never equitably taxed. Even today more than 90% of the mineral wealth is owned by people who reside completely outside Appalachia. Consequently, we have a situation in which many incredibly poor people are dwelling in a fantastically rich land.

The fatalism of the Appalachian people is deepened by the fact that the absentee owners in offices in Boston, Philadelphia, and New York have far more influence with governors and legislators than do the mountaineers themselves. As a people the "hillbillies" have sold their land and birth-right to outlanders and then established weak governmental institutions which actually protect their exploiters.

Many other factors have combined to cripple the Appalachian people. According to a recent medical survey, there are more than 70,000 totally disabled men suffering from silicosis and pneumonoconiosis caused by mining and quarrying (Caudill, p. 18). Thousands of others have been disabled by sustained malnutrition, due primarily to severe poverty.

The region never had good schools. Appalachia has the highest rate of white adult illiteracy in America and most of the remaining schools consist of one-and two-room school houses. In eastern Kentucky 24% of the adults over 24 years of age are illiterate (Caudill, p.19).

At present little help has come to the resident of Appalachia and he continues to leave the area at a high rate. Out-migration began after the Civil War and has quickened with each succeeding generation. This sustained out-migration is robbing the region of its brains and its strong hands. As an example, in Hamilton County, (Cincinnati) Ohio, 85% of the school teachers are immigrants from Appalachia (Caudill).

The mountain people are fiercely proud of their heritage, and even when they migrate to the cities they continue to think of Appalachia as "home". And although they may be concentrated in an urban ghetto, their hearts are still back in the mountains where they were born.

The South today suffers from these burdens of history. They have a retarding effect on economic progress in the region and the development of a social situation conducive to rapid economic growth. The South's orientation towards agriculture and an adverse business mix continue to be serious problems. Unemployment has traditionally been high, and Southern industry has been slow in generating income.

Some rural programs, especially farm and vocational agricultural programs, are relics from an earlier era. They were developed in a period during which the welfare of farm families was equated with the well-being of rural communities and of all rural people. Such a situation is no longer prevalent. Most rural programs still do not take the speed and consequences of technological change into account. We have not yet adjusted to the fact that in the brief period from 1950 to 1965, new machines and new methods increased farm output in the United States by 45%, and reduced farm employment by 45% (Caudill). During the next 15 years the need for farm labor is expected to decline yet another 45% (Congress of the United States Joint Economic Committee, 1966). Changes like these on the farm are paralleled on a broader front throughout rural America, affecting many activities other than farming, and touching many more rural people than just those on farms.

In contrast to the urban poor, the rural poor, notably the white, are not well organized, and have few spokesmen to publicize their problems. The vocal, better organized urban poor gain most of the benefits of current anti-poverty programs.

Rural poverty in the United States has no geographic boundaries. It is acute in the South, but it is present and serious in the East, West, and North. Disease and premature death are startlingly high among the rural poor. Infant mortality, for instance, is far higher among the rural poor than among the least privileged groups in urban areas. Chronic diseases also are common among both young and old, and medical and dental care are conspicuously absent. Unemployment and underemployment are major problems in rural America. The rate of unemployment nationally is about 4%. The rate in rural areas averages about 19% (Congress of the United States Joint Economic Committee, 1966). Among farm workers a recent study discovered that underemployment runs as high as 37% (The People Left Behind, 1967). The rural poor have always attended inadequate schools. More than three million rural adults are classified as illiterates (The People Left Behind,1967). Rural people generally have poorer schooling than city dwellers, and the rural poor are severely handicapped by their lack of education.

It is difficult for rural people, being handicapped educationally, to acquire new skills, or get new jobs, or otherwise adjust to a society becoming increasingly urbanized. This is as true on the farm as in urban industry, for modern farming requires skills that the poorly educated lack. Most of the rural poor live in atrocious housing. One in every 13 houses in rural America is officially classified as unfit (The People Left Behind, 1967).

In rural poverty areas the community has all but disappeared as an effective institution. In the past the rural community performed the services needed by farmers and other rural people, but now larger towns and cities have taken over many of the economic and social functions of the villages and small towns.

As rural communities declined, they offered fewer and fewer opportunities for anyone to earn a living. Technological progress brought sharp declines in the manpower needs of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and mining. Other industries did not replace the jobs lost, and the result was too few jobs for young entrants to the labor market. These inadequately equipped young people left in search of better opportunities elsewhere. Those remaining behind have few resources with which to earn incomes adequate for a decent living and for revitalizing their communities.

The mass exodus from low income rural areas in recent years has meant that those left behind are often worse off than before. Their chances of escaping from poverty or even easing their burden have been reduced. This is partly due to the fact that the areas have too many old people and children for the working-age population to support. Partly it is because a smaller population, spread too sparsely, cannot support or build a strong flexible social and economic superstructure in the area. Local governments, schools and churches are dying from lack of support, and as local facilities and services continue to decline, the chances for redevelopment diminish.

In the poor areas of rural America an income of $3,000 per family is the exception, not the rule. Of the poor families in these areas, more than 70% live on less than $2,000 a year, and one family in every four struggles to exist on less than $1,000 a year (The People Left Behind, 1967). Some rural families earn so little that their children are not only malnourished but literally starving. As a team of six physicians discovered in a 1967 survey in the rural South:

> In sum, we saw children who are hungry and who are sick -- children for whom hunger is a daily fact of life, and sickness, in many forms, an inevitability. We do not want to quibble over words, but "malnutrition" is not quite what we found: the boys and girls we saw were hungry -- weak, in pain, sick; their lives are being shortened; they are, in fact, visibly and predictably losing their health, their energy, their spirits. They are suffering from hunger and disease and directly or indirectly they are dying from these -- which is exactly what "starvation" means ... It is unbelievable to us that a nation as rich as ours, with all its technological and scientific resources, has to permit thousands and thousands of children to go hungry, sick, and die grim and premature deaths (Composite Survey of Economic Opportunity, 1966).

The strictly rural areas, and areas with lowest incomes, have the heaviest out-migration. Consider, for example, the counties classed as all rural, i.e., lacking a town of 2,500 or more population. By 1960, despite the natural increase (births minus deaths), these counties had lost almost 2 million people, or 15% of their 1950 populations, through migration. In contrast, the mainly urban counties (with 70% or more of their population in urban centers) gained more than 5 million, or about 6%, through immigration (Southern Regional Council, 1967). Thus we can clearly see trends for the future in continuing urban growth and resulting rural decline.

In summary then, we can see that the rural poor of America suffer from numerous problems, chief of which are lack of education and training, poor health, psychological problems, economic poverty, and inefficient welfare practices.

It seems apparent that many of the more able rural poor are moving to cities in search of a better life. In most cases this eludes them, however, due to their numerous handicaps Consequently they become bitter and frustrated. Thus, many of these people are undoubtedly ready for "action" when a riot "climate" occurs. It should not be difficult to see that they feel a strong need to "avenge" themselves against a society which has caused them so much pain.

It should also be apparent that one of the chief solutions to the problem lies in attacking rural poverty on the spot rather than waiting for the rural poor to move to large cities in desperation. Encouraging industry to locate in rural areas would be a valuable endeavor since such a move would bring employment opportunities to areas where none now exist.

In a private enterprise system such as ours, industry would probably be willing to relocate if monetary incentives were provided by government. If such "relocating of opportunity" does not work out, another alternative would be to provide the needy rural population with training in needed job skills so that they can successfully move to areas where opportunities are available.

The Migrant Laborer

The American migrant farm laborer constitutes a disadvantaged population of his own. A large percentage of this group consists of Mexican-Americans; but Negroes, Spanish-speaking Americans, and native whites are also included. Most migrants are concentrated in the southern United States with the majority being found in the southwestern states, i.e., Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, and California. Some have always been migrants as their parents were before them. Others were once tenant farmers or sharecroppers. A few owned their own farms which they had to sell when neighboring farms were mechanized and they couldn't compete.

The American migrant farm laborer is a traveling man. He is undereducated with not much more than a grade-school education and he is facing the pressures of agricultural modernization. The United States Department of Agriculture recently described the personal and economic characteristics of domestic migratory farm workers (Composite Survey of Economic Opportunity, 1966). Essentially it is a young labor force: half of the migratory workers are less than twenty-five years of age. More than 70% are male and 80% are white. Migratory workers also have a relatively loose attachment to the labor force. More than half are out of the labor market most of the year attending school, keeping house, or doing other seasonal jobs. Fewer then half are heads of households. Those who have some high school education are likely to do some non-farm work in the off-season, working where wage rates are higher than they are in the fields.

There are an estimated 500,000 or more domestic migratory farm workers -- about 100,000 families (Tobin, 1968). The defining characteristic of American migrant farm laborers is the practice of leaving their home county to work in areas beyond a normal range of daily commuting. They travel because of economic necessity. Generally they find jobs independently through friends and relatives, former employers, the public employment office, or other methods.

A common characteristic of all migrants is the fact that they travel in groups. Families usually work together in the fields and vineyards. However, if weather problems occur, thereby postponing or prematurely ripening a crop, the migrant family suffers, since it lives essentially from hand-to-mouth on a day-to-day basis.

An expanding population and higher living standards require the production of ever greater quantities of fruits and vegetables, but mechanization is becoming more and more prevalent. On many large and highly specialized farms machinery is now used in planting, cultivating, and harvesting. This situation limits the availability of work for the migrant farm laborer.

Many migrants have long periods of unemployment while on the road waiting for crops to ripen or for stormy weather to end. Their income is low, partly because of irregular employment, and partly because farm workers usually are not protected by minimum wage, unemployment compensation, or other labor laws.

The migrant's trek begins in the spring from the southern border of the country. He moves north and west covering most of the North Central, Mountain, and Pacific Coast states before the season ends in December. Migratory workers travel by three major routes northward from states along the southern border of the United States. The main stream flows west and north from Texas starting in the early spring; the crops involved are cotton, sugar beets, vegetables, and fruits. Many workers in this particular migratory stream are Americans of Mexican descent and they usually take their families with them. As summer comes to the Middle West and Atlantic Coast states, migrants work northward, with Negroes constituting a large proportion of the East Coast work force. They take their families with them, and the problems of poor housing, malnutrition, low wages, inadequate medical care, disease, dangerous transportation, and maltreatment are all parts of the daily routine.

In 1966, annual income averaged $1,600 per worker, and it is little more today (Tobin, 1968). Migrant workers are probably the most underprivileged group of workers in the United States. Not really belonging to any community, the migrants have missed out on school, church, and health, welfare, and recreation services available to those who are residents of a community. When they come to a community that is interested in them, cares about them, and tries to do something for them, the community finds that the migrants have an unexpected number of needs,many of which will not be satisfactorily served until other needs are also met. For example, a community that tries to break the cycle by getting the children into school finds that they need health services, and so do their parents. Small children need day care so that the older ones will not be kept out of school to take care of them. A few migrants may desperately need medical care and welfare services. Some of their housing is found to be so unsanitary that health services are not of much use.

The migratory worker is forced to endure constant degradation. Not accepted at home, he is even more humiliated on the road. The chief handicap is that, as migrants, they "belong to no one." Since they do not live "at home", they must constantly make living arrangements on the road.

Besides the summer sun, at its height during harvest time, the average farm laborer is up against a host of other enemies -- some of them natural, some man-made; some obvious, others indistinct. Farm work has always been done where little or no handy water supplies or toilet facilities are available. It almost always involves long hours plus exposure to heat, cold, dust, wind, chemicals, mechanical hazards, and poor hygienic facilities. The company store, the sprays used in agriculture but not meant for contact with human skin or lungs, accidents caused by farm machinery, rickety transportation between jobs are some of the obvious drawbacks, along with low pay. Others include local prejudice and the impressment of child labor on grounds that the ripe harvest must be brought in. No doctor, no schooling or legal recourse is available to the average migratory worker.

Since migrants' quarters frequently lack facilities for food storage, bathing, or laundry, disease is with them always. So are rats and insects, sewage, and the burdens of ignorance. The migrant is at the mercy of every ill man can endure and a few most men could never possibly imagine.

The lot of migrant children everywhere is to live in ugly, barren, crowded surroundings, to work or wait in incredible heat from early morning until late evening, to lack parental companionship and supervision, to be fed poorly and irregularly, and in general, to shift for themselves or be burdened with the care of babies and children smaller than themselves. Unless this vicious cycle is broken, the children are doomed to live the hopeless and uncertain lives of their ancestors, and they too will drop out of school -- though, as intelligence tests prove, not from lack of potential. Limited and inferior schooling combine with extreme deprivation to plague the children of migrant families.

The average farm wage rate paid migratory workers in 1966 was $10.80 per day (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968); but since many were away from home for weeks, even months at a time, and had to take care of their own living expenses out of this meager income, not much of the money from their stooping and picking went home with them.

In previous years, wages were held down by importation of labor, primarily from Mexico. In recent years this situation has changed somewhat with the new legislation restricting importation of labor; but curiously enough, a significant change in the income of migrant labor has not taken place. What has been achieved in this area is largely due to the effects of the work done by Cesar Chavez and his UF WOC in California. The growers of Delano, California, refused to recognize the union and a successful nationwide boycott was inaugurated which gained not only recognition for the union, but also considerable concessions with regard to wages and working conditions (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

In summary, the migrant has a particular problem which separates him from other economically disadvantaged groups--he is continually on the move. This unique situation means that he is not in any single county long enough to benefit from proper education, health facilities, or other necessary functions. He is like a wandering gypsy in that he has no ties to any particular area.

In order to provide migrants with needed education, health facilities, and other services, it may be necessary to establish "regional centers" which will aid the migrant. Since local governments in all probability cannot or will not finance such centers, the task will fall to the federal government, and perhaps rightfully so. The migrant, after all, moves so broadly throughout the nation that the federal government is perhaps the only level of government which can really assist him. Many migrants are continuing the trend of leaving farm labor and moving to the cities. This trend will probably continue for several years to come.

The American Indian

Today there are approximately 380,000 American Indians, most of whom are still herded into reservations or other land areas set aside for them by the federal government. The Bureau of Indian Affairs lists 263 Indian tribes, bands, villages, pueblos, and groups throughout the United States. The Bureau is trustee for more than 50,000,000 acres of Indian lands, and it provides various services to the Indian people who own them (Tobin, 1968).

Not all Indian groups are under federal administrative supervision. Some have terminated such relationships. Others occupy reservation areas which they acquired through state rather than federal agreements. Still others live independently among the general population.

Although Indians today have the same constitutional rights as other Americans, acquiring their citizenship was a long and involved process. Not until 1924 was the Indian Citizenship Act passed. Before that time Indians had become citizens only through treaty agreement, special naturalizing of those who took land allotments, and/or other special legislation. The 1924 act stipulated that "all non-citizen Indians born within the territorial limits of the United States" were to be declared citizens, and provided further that "granting of such citizenship shall not in any manner impair or otherwise affect the right of any Indian to tribal or other property." (Bureau of Indian Affairs).

Even with the Citizenship Act, Indians did not in all cases attain the franchise easily. Various state laws enacted from the beginning of the 19th century to the early 20th century disenfranchised them, usually on grounds of their high degree of tribal sovereignty or because they were not required to assume the same burdens of citizenship as other Americans (Indian trust lands being exempt from real property and income taxes).

Although the situation differs markedly from one reservation to another--influenced by the geography and economy of each region and by each tribe's own history--there are certain problems that are nationwide in character. These might be summed up as follows: the lack of education and training opportunities to enable Indians to compete in the job market for skilled and professional work; lack of productive land to provide an adequate livelihood in farming or ranching for the expanding population; scarcity of industrial and commercial jobs nearby, shortage of capital to start new enterprises, and under-utilization of the land for such potential income-producing purposes as development of recreation attractions for tourists, leasing for urban development (particularly in the southwest), industrial enterprises, and lumbering (Bureau of Indian Affairs).

Today most Indians, whether on reservations or not, live in poverty. On reservations job opportunities are scarce, and off the reservations, the Indian's chances of finding gainful employment are scarcely better. Nevertheless, nearly every Indian pupil faces the fact that upon completing his education, economic and vocational success will be most readily achieved if he leaves the reservation.

Honigman (Bureau of Indian Affairs) feels that the American Indian is characterized by a high degree of psychological homogeneity, but that the thread which ties Indian culture together may well be the "culture of poverty." Studies have shown that Indians who have become integrated into American society at large are significantly higher in achievement and lower in cultural alienation than are segregated Indians (those still on reservations).

Keeler feels that schools have failed with the Indian because the Indian believes he is the same as his image, i.e., a failure. Keeler believes that Indians feel there is no opportunity for them.

For those Indians still on reservations, a primary problem is that the land base on most reservations is not sufficiently productive to provide a decent livelihood for the population it must support through farming, stockraising, or timber production. Other problems include scarcity of nearby industrial or commercial jobs, lack of capital to start new enterprises, and the need of many Indians for more education and training to qualify them for better paying jobs.

The Indian's chief problem to date has been his continual abuse over many years at the hands of the federal government. He is perhaps properly the ward of the federal government today--and attempts to change his condition should perhaps come from the federal government itself, either through incentives to private enterprise or via direct assistance programs.

Today, faced with a lack of adequate livelihood opportunities on the reservation itself, the Indian is in crisis. Often he must leave the reservation to find work but he is not equipped emotionally or occupationally for life elsewhere in society.

One solution for the Indian's plight, short of direct federal assistance, may be to develop tourism on those reservations where this has not already been done, and then to encourage private enterprise to locate facilities on the reservations, thus providing job opportunities. Where this cannot be done, training and counseling should be provided for the Indian so that he may move where opportunity exists. Once relocated, counseling should continue for an indefinite period so that the Indian's emotional adjustment to life off the reservation will be facilitated.

The Indian is unique in that his family and tribal ties are very strong. When he leaves the reservation he suffers great emotional pain, and counseling is needed to help alleviate this problem.

The Urban Poor

The residents of our urban ghetto areas are in need of immediate attention, as indeed are all disadvantaged groups throughout the nation. In addition to the Negro and Puerto Rican there are many other minority groups living in disadvantaged circumstances in the several large cities throughout the nation. There are significant numbers of Chinese-Americans, Mexican-Americans, and Indians living in the urban centers of the West. There are many Mexican-Americans living in the cities of Texas and the Southwest and several groups of Indians located in the large cities of the central Midwest. Since all of these groups share many of the same problems, similar programs of assistance would aid all these urban disadvantaged groups.

One of several points made by the Child Rearing Study (CRS) (Health and Welfare Council, 1966) of low-income families in Washington, D. C. is an attempt to refute popular misconceptions about the urban poor. CRS-findings show that such families do not neglect their children but rather are forced by their circumstances to train children to be independent. Poor families care deeply about education and other middle-class values but lack the money and knowledge to realize these aspirations. Although they have been accused of promiscuity, in fact, individuals in the CRS sample were prudish and inhibited about giving sex information to their children and placed great value on the legitimacy of offspring. Fathers desert their families mainly because of unemployment or low paying jobs.

The CRS found that neglect is not characteristic of low income families; that child-rearing practices, which appear as neglect, often have a rational, pragmatic base. It is often necessary to train children away from dependency upon their parents.

Urbanization and socioeconomic deprivation, rather than a background of slavery, appear to be the root causes of the character of Negro family life. Washington's poor, including many of these 55 families, are known to teachers, social workers, policemen and probation officers. But the jobs of these professionals demand that they categorize poor families under the various labels imposed by the American society. Thus the poor are pictured as "problems", i.e., school dropouts, neglected children, welfare cheaters, family deserters, felons, parolees, and probationers.

From the experience of CRS workers it would seem that successful communication with the disadvantaged is a two-way street. Although the CRS personnel may not have completely scaled racial and/or class barriers, their experience clearly demonstrates that professionals can communicate effectively with the poor, and that the poor seek and need their help. They found that communication is best achieved by being willing to listen to what is said, and to respond with respect and sincerity.

Not only have professionals created artificial barriers between themselves and poor families, but these professionals also have devised terms which make it more difficult for them to talk with each other. In this lexicon, the poor are disguised by such labels as "underprivileged," "culturally deprived" and "socially disadvantaged."

These labels may sound inoffensive enough, but they tend to put all of the poor under the same umbrella, thereby obscuring specific problems. Too often, for instance, scholars say "underprivileged" when they mean "Negro." This tends to oversimplify the race problem and ignores Negroes who may be privileged or, in a few instances, overprivileged.

Labels also fail to distinguish between the pandemic poverty of an Appalachia and the epidemic poverty of a Detroit, hit as it was a few years ago, by automation and a slackening demand for automobiles. Wherever they may be, the poor share the need for financial assistance, but programs that may be good for Detroit, or for Harlan County, Kentucky, may not be suitable for the long-time Negro or white slum resident whose endemic poverty is the all-pervading fact of his life.

The differences between middle income and low income values lies not so much in life objectives as in the ways that poor families alone must face the grim consequences of insufficient income. From the perspective of poverty, excessive drinking, stealing, fighting, or sexual promiscuity is frequently condemned, often tolerated, but rarely condoned.

The continual employment problems which exist in deprived areas constitute a key factor in the pathology of poverty. Among the job-related problems of unemployment, low paying and low-status jobs, weak labor force ties, and irregular working hours, unemployment is the most severe. In 1967 the 450,000 unemployed persons in impoverished urban neighborhoods constituted 15.3% of the total unemployed in the nation, while these neighborhoods produced only 8.6% of the nation's labor force (Keeler). The magnitude of the unemployment problem in poor neighborhoods in 1967 may be summarized as follows: the highest unemployment rate in the poverty areas was among teen-agers. For all this group the jobless rate averaged 23.5%. Unemployed teen-agers totaled 135,000. A total of 75,000 young workers, aged 20-24, were unemployed in poor neighborhoods, with the jobless rate for young women higher than the rate for young men, 10.1 versus 7.5%. The bulk, some 200,000, of the unemployed poverty residents were men and women in the prime working years, aged 25-54. Unemployment is most critical for this group of workers since they are the major sources of income for their families.

About 50,000 older workers, aged 55 and over, were unemployed in the poverty areas in 1967 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968). Older women had the lowest jobless rate of all poverty residents, but the rate for older men was the same as the rate for men in the prime working years.

Low-status, low-paying jobs represent the primary means of livelihood for workers in impoverished urban neighborhoods. These workers are concentrated in the semiskilled and unskilled job levels. Due primarily to automation these occupational categories have exhibited slower growth in the post-World War II period than the economy as a whole and are characterized by relatively high unemployment and cyclical instability. A little over one-third of the employed persons living in ghettos were classified in these occupational categories in 1967, compared with about 20% of the employed persons in other urban neighborhoods (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

A high proportion of the new factories and other commercial establishments being built today are located in the rings of suburban areas rather than in the central cities. This concentration of new industry in the suburbs represents a large capital investment, leading to substantial increases in suburban employment, especially in industry, retail and wholesale trade, and technical services. Many of the jobs created are within the capabilities of urban slum residents who need employment opportunities, but most of the new jobs are too distant and thus too difficult for them to reach.

The Urban Negro

One popular assumption is that low-income Negro families are not only a class apart and a race apart from the American mainstream, but are also a "culture" apart in terms of attitudes, values and goals. According to this rationale, the Negro poor are supposed to be particularly "hard-to-reach" by both whites and middle class Negroes. Social workers, teachers and other professionals, the theory goes, must find "indigenous leaders" or "people-to-people workers" among the ranks of the Negro poor, applying the rationale that these poor can only communicate with each other or "speak the same language."

The CRS study found that poor families speak English--not always grammatical English--with a clarity that social scientists and other professionals might well emulate. Most of the Negro poor are far from being inarticulate. Indeed, CRS workers--white as well as Negro--often found the "language" of the poor easier to understand than the jargon used by their own colleagues.

Among the "neo-stereotypes" assigned by CRS personnel to the poor families generally, and to the Negro families particularly, are that the sexuality of the lower class is spontaneous, natural and free from inhibitions; that unwed mothers have babies to increase welfare payments and that lower class Negroes attach no stigma to illegitimacy. These new stereotypes have displaced older prejudgments (i.e., that Negroes are innately stupid, dishonest, lazy, ad infinitum). Neo-sterotypes threaten to introduce new oversimplifications that make for new distortions. For example, pathological patterns are often associated with the matriarchal or "broken" family in which the father is absent from the household. Contrary to the popular view, CRS findings suggest that the child-rearing climate may be often improved by virtue of a mother's separation from "a no good man."

According to the CRS writers the urbanization and continuing social and economic deprivation of Negroes wield far more influence on Negro family life than the slavery heritage. One Negro father, who had been deserted by his wife, complained that his wife "went wild" after she came to the city from her home "two miles in the pine woods" of Georgia. But the bulk of CRS materials shows that urbanization is particularly damaging to Negro males. As jobs for unskilled Negro males, both urban and rural, rapidly decline, the materials suggest that the Negro father's role may be compromised even before the Negro family leaves the South. Unable to find employment in the South, he moves north in search of a job, but his role as a father figure has already been eroded.

Of all the residents of impoverished urban neighborhoods Negroes have the highest incidence of unemployment. Currently the unemployment rate is 8.9% for Negroes and 5.3% for whites (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

Although 10.6% of the nation's total population is black, Negroes constitute 39.4% of persons living in poverty areas of Metropolitan Centers as outlined by the U. S. Department of Labor (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

The disproportionate concentration of unemployed nonwhite workers in urban slum areas is quite evident in a recent Department of Labor study. In the 10 slum districts surveyed three of every four unemployed workers were nonwhite. Nationally about 3 of every 15 unemployed persons are nonwhite (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

Many slum residents have only part-time jobs and are earning too little to meet their own and their families' minimum subsistence needs. A much overlooked factor is that there is a considerable number of slum residents of working age who are neither working nor looking for work, and thus are not counted in the labor force.

Impoverished neighborhoods of the largest urban areas have a high proportion of broken families. Approximately 15% of all family heads living in the deprived areas of our cities are women (Holland, 1967).

Currently the most crucial job-related problem facing the Negro is the difficulty young Negroes have in finding jobs. The unemployment rate for Negro teen-agers rose sharply in 1958, and from 1958 through 1966 it remained between 24 and 30%. In other words, one out of four Negro youngsters seeking work is unsuccessful (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968). A few of the factors contributing to the unfortunate job situation of Negro youth are: (1) their educational backgrounds are usually more limited than those of white teen-agers; (2) Negroes of all ages are concentrated more than whites in city slums and rural areas where job opportunities are less abundant; (3) in many areas Negroes continue to face racial discrimination in hiring; and (4) Negro young people, especially those who finish high school, may be reluctant to accept the low skilled and low paying jobs offered them (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

Young Negroes also have difficulty in finding jobs because they do not have the contacts and connections in the employment market which most white youngsters have. Traditionally, the majority of Negroes have been concentrated at the bottom of the occupational ladder--in household work, other service occupations, agricultural labor, and unskilled labor in the cities.

Employment of Negroes in agriculture has fallen by some 50% during the last ten years (Holland, 1967). This fact has caused an even greater influx of rural poor Negroes into the ghettos of the nation's largest cities, thus aggravating an already severe problem.

The Puerto Rican

Puerto Ricans, concentrated in most of the nation's large eastern urban areas, face problems which are quite similar to those of the Negro. However, language barriers operate to compound the Puerto Rican's difficulties.

The culture of the Puerto Rican can be described in relation to three concepts--Dignidad (self-esteem or self-worth), Respeto (understanding of the role in the family and society), and Carino (affection). These concepts should be understood as interrelated and basic to Puerto Rican tradition. The extended family, with its concomitant security for the child, and the patriarchal pattern of the culture are deeply rooted in tradition. When the Puerto Rican migrates to the mainland, these values become strained and break down because of the mainland stress on contractual relationships and efficient behavior (Marie, 1964).

Keeler, (p. 15) in discussing the Puerto Ricans, states:

> There are cases where people wandered aimlessly over the island because of no jobs and tremendous poverty. They went to San Juan and became slum dwellers. They then learned a little English and thought the real land of promise was New York. They went to New York, and there were more problems.

Today Negroes and Puerto Ricans constitute the majority of those on welfare assistance in New York City.

The Federal government has attempted to aid the Puerto Ricans through "Operation Bootstrap," by which industry is encouraged to locate in Puerto Rico, thus keeping the island's citizenry employed at home.

The Mexican-American Population in Los Angeles

There has been a large Spanish-speaking community in southern California since the early days of the Spanish "Padres" and the colonial settlement by Spain of southern California. During this period today's "Mexican-American" became settled in southern California, and in fact is more probably a native of the area than is the Caucasian-American who predominates today.

The Mexican-American population for many years remained quite stable in the Los Angeles area since the area itself was not growing at an especially high rate. With the coming of World War II, however, the aircraft and other industries were responsible for enormous population growth in Los Angeles and this growth brought many people of Mexican-American ancestry into the metropolitan area to fill jobs that were primarily menial in nature. As the Los Angeles area's growth has continued, more and more Mexican-Americans have moved there so that today there is a very large urban Mexican-American settlement in Los Angeles.

Many of these recent migrants to the city are former migrant farm labor workers who have left the vineyards and vegetable farms in search of a better economic way of life for themselves. Although the unemployment rate among Mexican-Americans in Los Angeles does not appear to be excessive, it is felt by many that further migration of this group into the city will create problems since the economy of the area no longer has as rapid a rate of growth as it has had for the last two decades (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1968).

The Mexican-American population living in the city today is still handicapped by a lack of skilled training, and in many cases a lack of adequate educational background (especially for those who have come from the rural setting). The primary solution to the problem of continuing migration would appear to lie in attempts to improve the lot of the migrant farm worker. For the population already in the city, job retraining and improved educational facilities are needed.

The Spanish-Speaking Population of South Florida

Beginning with the Revolution of 1958 in Cuba in which Fidel Castro came to power, large numbers of people began leaving Cuba to seek refuge in the United States. For the first few years these emigrés were almost all middle class business and professional people, wealthy upper-class individuals, and a few who would be classified as skilled tradesmen. The primary reason for leaving Cuba was the fear that Castro represented a threat to the economic and social security of these groups.

With Castro's rise to power, the United States government initiated a policy of admitting any refugees from Cuba. Many of the people who began coming at this time, and who are still coming today, were people with relatives in the United States, or those who were old, sick, or otherwise disabled. The flow of immigrants has continued at a rather steady pace for the last several years since the Castro government has encouraged the disabled or the aged, and anyone who especially wants to leave Cuba, to come to the United States.

The Cuban population which has immigrated to the United States has concentrated primarily in the Miami, Florida, area. Since the Dade County-Miami area is one which has enjoyed rapid and steady growth and prosperity during this period, most of the Cuban immigrants have become economically integrated into the area. However, many of them have severe language problems because they cannot speak English very well. This factor tends to limit many of these people to low skill, low paying jobs. Thus most of them can obtain employment, but they are living on such meager incomes that the great majority of immigrants exist at the poverty level.

It is apparent that the prime needs of these people are language skills (English), and occupational skills which would enable them to obtain better employment. It might also be desirable to encourage many of these people to leave the Miami area so that they might obtain better jobs in other areas where the competition for low-level jobs would not be as intense as it is in South Florida. Skilled training should still be provided along with language training for all of the able-bodied people, whether they remain in South Florida or not. Finally, for those who are already aged, sick, or infirm, there seems to be little that can be done other than to continue their welfare payments (unless our government begins to apply the immigration standards to Cuban immigrants along with all other immigrants).

The Chinese-Americans of San Francisco

The Chinese settlement in San Francisco has been famous for many years as a prime tourist attraction for visitors to that city. It has always been renowned for its unique and distinctive oriental flavor, which adds to the cosmopolitan air of San Francisco. Beneath the fascinating facade however, many within the Chinese community live lives of severe poverty.

The Chinese settlement on the west coast dates back approximately 100 years to the time when Leland Stanford, builder of the Western Pacific Railroad, imported Chinese "coolies" to serve as laborers. The coolies were imported because they would work for very low wages. They were given no education or training of any kind but were merely "human machines" for the purpose of erecting a railroad. Because they were a readily identifiable minority group, and because they worked for such extremely low wages, the Chinese were subjected to intense hatred, distrust, and prejudice by those living around them. Probably as a result of this prejudice, the Chinese community became extremely withdrawn. This situation has continued to the present day, no doubt exacerbated by the events of World War II when Japanese-Americans were "impounded" by the United States government and their properties seized.

The Chinese community is dominated by family hierarchies, often in the form of "Benevolent Societies". The purpose of these Benevolent Societies is to aid members of the community who need assistance. Even with the welfare system the strength of these Benevolent Societies has continued, but they are beginning to lose much of their former power and influence. In the past, the head of a familial unit or Benevolent Society would have been a person of great power within the Chinese community, but this is no longer the rule. The traditional Chinese respect for one's elders is breaking down, and many Chinese families are undergoing severe personal emotional crises.

Many within the Chinese community--especially those over forty--are equipped to perform only the most menial jobs. Their plight is complicated by the fact that their command of the English language is poor. The younger generations appear to be faring somewhat better, but juvenile delinquency is becoming a problem now that the familial unit is disintegrating.

Beneath the quaint facade the Chinese-American community in San Francisco is currently undergoing severe strain. Help should be provided on several fronts: family counseling services, better educational facilities for young and old, and job retraining and upgrading.

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In summary, the urban disadvantaged have almost always come from rural societies. Now that they are in the urban setting, the problem becomes how to assist them to achieve the desirable levels of achievement and satisfaction.

The chief problems of the urban poor are high unemployment and low paying and low status jobs. The ghettoes are areas of little opportunity, and the poor do not have the necessary training, motivation,or occupational information to move out. In addition to their employment problems they must cope with family problems, emotional difficulties, and the omnipresent "dropout" problem.

Solutions to the problems of the urban poor lie in programs of education, training, and employment. Private industry should be offered incentives to locate plants in ghetto areas or to make available transportation to the job site for ghetto residents, and to provide job training for the urban poor. These solutions must be based on a clinical approach attending to such background factors as unemployment, housing, education, and segregation, which have lead to antisocial behavior. Positive community organization must recognize the diversity of low income life styles and requires a nonjudgmental attitude on the part of professionals who work with the poor.

Section III.

ASSESSMENT OF FEDERALLY-SUPPORTED JOB TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

Introduction

In March, 1964, President Lyndon B. Johnson launched his "total war on poverty" and the federal government became involved in an effort to enhance employment prospects and individual employability through manpower programs. The ensuing years have been a time of new sensitivity to the old problems of unemployment, poverty, and other social ills. Two specific developments were influential in generating federal support for training of the unemployed and disadvantaged. The first was the high level of unemployment during the latter part of the 1950's and the early part of the 1960's; the second and more significant development was the civil rights movement and the attention it focused on poverty (Levitan & Mangum, 1967). The combination of these two factors resulted in the inauguration of numerous training programs designed to attack the problems of poverty and unemployment on a piecemeal basis.

Regardless of the fact that the federal government has considerable experience and expertise in manpower operations, a change in emphasis with regard to manpower policy has demanded a different approach. Whereas the traditional concern of federal manpower policy involved income maintenance programs which did not attack the underlying causes of poverty and unemployment, the new effort has become one of halting the transmission of poverty from one generation to another. "Opportunity" and "involvement" are key words and the fundamental theme is self-help (Miller, 1966). Thus manpower policy has shifted from "selecting-out" or finding the best man for a job to "selecting-in," i.e., equipping the man for a job.

Current manpower policy can be traced to the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 (ARA) (See Appendix C for list of acronyms) which was the first of the new programs designed to reduce unemployment of the "competitively disadvantaged," i.e., those who face various disadvantages (e.g., geographical, age, skill, or racial barriers) in competing for jobs (Mangum, December 28-29, 1967).

A miniscule part of ARA, training for the unemployed, was expanded and became the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962. MDTA was originally aimed at unemployed family heads and emphasized institutional training. In 1963, however, due to the continued rise in youth unemployment, the focus shifted and the youth component of MDTA was expanded. Meanwhile, federal support was quintupled for vocational education and by 1964, the "war on poverty" had been declared. A series of programs designated as the Economic Opportunity Act (EOA) and costing some $800 million constituted the initial attack in the war on the nation's ills. Included in this poverty package were the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Job Corps, adult basic education, work-experience programs, "work-off" programs for relief recipients, and the Community Action Program which was the heart of the legislation. Amendments to the Economic Opportunity Act in 1965 and 1966 introduced the Nelson-Scheuer program (Operation Mainstream or New Careers) for creation of subprofessional jobs and the Kennedy-Javits program (Special Impact) for job creation in concentrated areas of the poor. In the meantime, older programs were in the process of expanding and adjusting to the new manpower policy: federal support for the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration was tripled and the definition of handicapped was broadened to include the competitively disadvantaged; furthermore, the United States Employment Service was expanded to provide outreach, training, job development, and supportive services for the disadvantaged (Levitan & Mangum, 1967).

In response to the nation's ills, then, a battery of federal programs was developed and implemented in an atmosphere of innovation. The weapons for the war on poverty ran the gamut from physical rebuilding to education and skill training in manpower programs and included economic and employment growth plus social renovation in lagging areas. Products of this period of innovation consisted of confusion, duplication, gaps and overlaps. Nevertheless, the numerous programs with their varied objectives have achieved a degree of effectiveness and have served people whose needs were pressing.

The Programs

That part of the battery of weapons which relates to training efforts for the disadvantaged is the focus of this report. The piecemeal approach adopted by Congress to meet the varying training needs of the different types of disadvantaged people has resulted in approximately 30 federally-supported job training programs. Technically, the programs cannot be referred to as "federal manpower programs" because only one of every ten dollars of the total federal manpower budget is spent on programs operated by federal agencies; the rest is spent on grants-in-aid and contracts for encouraging state and local governments or private institutions to provide services (Levitan & Mangum, 1967).

Each of the federally-supported training programs has its own target population, program offerings, eligibility requirements, approach, and funding procedures. Target populations are not clearly defined and often overlap. No standard definition for "disadvantaged" or "hardcore" exists and thus the programs are targeted to broadly defined groups which generally refer to the low-income/low education group, e.g., the poor, the disadvantaged, the hard core unemployed, etc. (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

Program offerings include basic education, prevocational education, work experience, vocational training, and a variety of supportive services (counseling and guidance, health services, day care, etc.). Practically all programs are multicomponent, with the mix varying greatly from one program to another. Only three programs do not provide more recipients, and the Community Action Program which was the heart of the legislation. Amendments to the Economic Opportunity Act in 1965 and 1966 introduced the Nelson-Scheuer program (Operation Mainstream or New Careers) for creation of subprofessional jobs and the Kennedy-Javits program (Special Impact) for job creation in concentrated areas of the poor. In the meantime, older programs were in the process of expanding and adjusting to the new manpower policy: federal support for the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration was tripled and the definition of handicapped was broadened to include the competitively disadvantaged; furthermore, the United States Employment Service was expanded to provide outreach, training, job development, and supportive services for the disadvantaged (Levitan & Mangum, 1967).

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than one type of program offering: Adult Basic Education deals with language skills and arithmetic with no provision for occupational training; Vocational Education is almost entirely skill training; and apprenticeship provides for skill training in several hundred different industrial occupations.

Matching requirements exist in many programs but are absent from others (e.g., Job Corps, Experimental and Demonstration projects). The amount of matching required varies and can range from as much as 50% to as little as 10%.

Some form of trainee allowances is provided in all programs except Adult Basic Education and Vocational Education. Typically, there is great variation in amount and duration of allowances.

The Organization Structure

Three Cabinet-level departments within the government are primarily responsible for administration of the training program: The Department of Labor (DOL); The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW); and the Office of Economic Opportunity (OEO).

Labor is largely responsible for administering job training programs, which were delegated to it by OEO in 1966 and 1967, while HEW administers the Institutional aspect of the Manpower Development and Training program and welfare components of WEP-Title V (work experience) and WIP-Title IV (work incentive). HEW's responsibility encompasses those programs which are not exclusively job training, e.g., Vocational Rehabilitation, in which training is a small part of the multifaceted program. In contrast, the Office of Economic Opportunity administers programs which are targeted specifically to the most disadvantaged, e.g., Indians, migrants, youth from deprived environments, etc. Furthermore, OEO's programs are deliberately innovative and experimental. Most of the programs are not devoted entirely to job training but take a broad approach in which job training is a single facet. For example, the migrant problem includes such components as housing, child care, and adult literacy, in addition to job training.

Besides the aforementioned, several other agencies administer programs either wholly or partially. Commerce plays a supplementary role in MDTA-RAR (Training for Redevelopment Area Residents) and Five Cities-Ghetto Aid because of its interest in economic development. The Department of Justice and of the Interior each have long-standing programs for their interest groups (Federal prisoners and American Indians, respectively) where training is present although miniscule. The Veterans Administration is responsible for the recently enacted aid program for veterans in which training plays a small part (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

2

Program Characteristics

The Listing

Two questions exist with respect to the list of programs: (1) On what basis should programs be selected for inclusion? and (2) How should the programs be classified?

In the first case, a criterion must be established to aid in selecting a list from the several that are available which is comprehensive and also relevant to the proposed focus of this report, viz., the universe of federally-supported job training programs for the disadvantaged. Iron Age (May 30, 1968) presents a list of "government-sponsored programs for the unemployed" which has a broader orientation than is intended in this report. A listing is also presented by Levitan and Mangum (1967)which focuses more directly on training programs, but does not appear to be as comprehensive as it might be. The "Clark Committee" report (Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967) despite its intensive coverage, also employs a relatively narrow perspective in its program listing. In addition to these listings is that presented by the Greenleigh analysts in their report to the Committee on Administration of Training Programs (CATP). Greenleigh Associates were commissioned by CATP under House Appropriation Bill FY 1967, Amendment 32, to provide the committee with the data and analyses necessary for determining whether waste, inefficiency, or duplication existed in the variously administered job training programs financed partially or wholly with government funds. According to Amendment 32, programs within the committee's focus should include "such programs as vocational education, institutional, and on-the-job training under the Manpower Development and Training Act, apprenticeship and training program, Job Corps, specialized training programs under Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act, work experience program, work-study program, Neighborhood Youth Corps, etc." (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968, p. 13).

Although overlap exists among all of the aforementioned lists, the listing provided by Greenleigh Associates appears to be the most comprehensive in its coverage and to best match the focus of the present report. Therefore, it has been selected to provide the framework of this investigation. (Note: the present investigator's choice of the Greenleigh Associates' list is supported by the fact that the same list was selected for similar use by Marshall and Briggs, 1968).

The Greenleigh listing encompasses a variety of approaches and procedures and an allocation of funds ranging from under $3 million to more than $375 million. It includes some programs in which job training is only a component of the total activity (e.g., the manpower component of OEO Community Action programs). Further, the listing includes programs in which the training component is either contracted for or purchased rather than provided directly as a training activity. Also included are three programs which cut across program lines:

Concentrated Employment Program (CEP), Operation SER (Service-Employment-Redevelopment, Spanish-American Programs in the Southwest), and Ghetto-Aid are functionally termed "delivery systems" because the resources they mobilize are funded from more than one program source; in addition, these three programs do not arise from a specific piece of legislation, e.g., CEP achieved legislative recognition in the 1967 Economic Opportunity Amendments but arose initially from the President's Report to Congress in March, 1967.

Not included in Greenleigh's listing are the following: Opportunity Industrialization Centers (OIC), Human Resources Development Program (HRD) of the Federal-State Employment Service, and the Neighborhood Facilities Program of the Department of Housing and Urban Development. OIC is an independent sponsor and not a program stemming from federal legislation or administrative authority, despite the fact that it is both significant and important in job training activities and receives funding from Labor, OEO, and HEW. Neither HRD nor the Neighborhood Facilities Program provides job training but each is closely linked with job training in other federal programs. The former, HRD, provides recruiting, counseling, and placement services while the latter, Neighborhood Facilities, houses a variety of manpower and related activities in its multipurpose neighborhood centers.

The Classification

The second question with regard to an efficient program listing involves a method of classification. Any approach presents difficulties. Classification by target population obscures the differences which separate the programs since the targets are not usually clearly defined. Furthermore, target populations may change as a program passes from the legislative (federal) level to the action (local) level. Classification by type of training offered is precluded by the multicomponent nature of the programs. Not only do the individual programs have several components but the components of a single program have a different mix and measurements of the mix are unavailable. Classification by administering agency is inefficient because of the multiplicity of arrangements (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968). For example, administration of a program may be by a single agency or by more than one agency; where administration is by a single agency, more than one bureau may share in administrative duties. It appears that classification by legislation, at least initially, will provide a clearer picture to the reader and will aid in organization of this extremely complex field.

Table 2 presents the listing of the 31 programs enumerated in the Greenleigh report to the CATP. The programs arise predominantly from the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 or the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended, with the exceptions of vocational education and apprenticeship. Twenty-eight of the 31 programs are administered either individually or in combination by the Labor Department, HEW, and OEO. The remaining three are concerned with various

Table 2

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs*

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Featuresa/	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended.						
Title II, B-Section 231	MDTA, Institutional Training (Began August 1962)b/	LABOR-BES.** HEW-OE-DMDT.	Skill training in institutional setting, on full-time stipended basis.	Unemployed, underemployed, low-skilled, disadvantaged, obsolescent-skilled.	Yes	Yes
Title II, Section 202 (j), (1)	MDTA, Part-Time and Other-Than Skill (Began 1966)	HEW-OE-DMDT. LABOR-BES.	Training in communications and "employment" skills (e.g., job-finding skills, improved work habits, etc.), with or without occupational training.	Unemployed, underemployed, low-skilled, disadvantaged, obsolescent-skilled.	Yes	Yes
Title II, A-Section 204	On-the-Job Training (Began August 1962)	LABOR-BAT;c/ LABOR-BES.	Skill training, on the job, with wages paid by the employer (and subsidies paid to the employer).	Unemployed, underemployed, low-skilled, disadvantaged, obsolescent-skilled.	Yes	No
Title II, A-Section 204	Coupled-OJT	LABOR-BES; LABOR-BAT.c/ HEW-OE-DMDT.	Skill training on the job, coupled with classroom training on or off job premises.	Unemployed, underemployed, low-skilled, disadvantaged, obsolescent-skilled.	Yes	Yes
Title II, C-Section 241	MDTA Training for Redevelopment Area Residents (Began August 1962 and earlier under the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961)	LABOR-BES; LABOR-BAT.c/ HEW-OE-DMDT. COMMERCE-EDA.	MDTA (Institutional, OJT, or Coupled) for residents of redevelopment areas.	Unemployed and underemployed in redevelopment areas.	Yes	No

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Title II, D-Section 251	MDTA Training-Correctional Institutions (Proposed on Pilot Basis for fiscal 1968, but not funded yet. A few projects were begun on an E and D basis.)	LABOR-BES; LABOR-BAT.[c] HEW-OE-DMDT.	Skill training on prison sites (or off site, where feasible), coupled with prevocational training as required, for prison inmates. Incentive payments and allowances are paid as "gate money" upon release; supplemental payments are made directly to dependents during the training.	Inmates of correctional institutions.	Yes	No
Title I	Experimental and Demonstration Programs (Began August 1962)	LABOR-OMPER.[d]	Experimental and demonstration projects, with innovative techniques, with special emphasis on the problems of the most disadvantaged.	Hard-to-reach; disadvantaged youth; hard-core unemployed; older workers; minority groups.	Yes	No
Executive Decision of the President. (Based on MDTA; EOA)						
	Ghetto Aid Program (Five Cities)	LABOR-MA. COMMERCE-SBA.	Job training through bids by private industry in addition to job guarantees. The five cities are Boston, Washington, Chicago, Los Angeles, and and San Antonio.	Hard-core disadvantaged.	Depends on source of funds.	Depends on source of funds.

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Executive Decision, President's Report to Congress, March 1967. (Based on MDT Act and Economic Opportunity Act)	Concentrated Employment Program (CEP) (Began July 1967)	LABOR-MA.	Began in 1967 in 19 inner-city neighborhoods with high unemployment, and in 2 rural areas with severe and chronic unemployment. Reaches out to most disadvantaged, and provides full continuum of services in order to move persons to productive employment.	Hard-core unemployed and disadvantaged in selected areas.	Yes, depending on source of funds.	Depends on source of funds.
Economic Opportunity Act[e] of 1964, as amended to 1966						
Title I, A	Job Corps (Began January 1965)	OEO-Job Corps.	Residential centers for severely disadvantaged young men and women who need a change from their home environments. Intensive education, vocational training, work experience, health and other supportive services, are provided on a stipend basis.	Disadvantaged youth[h] 16 to 21.	Yes	No
Title I, B	Neighborhood Youth Corps (Began January 1965)	LABOR-BWTP.	Provides work experience on a stipend basis, for unemployed youth, in or out of school, during school term and during summer months.	In-school youth or[f] dropouts 16-21 years from poverty families.	Yes	Yes

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Title I, D	Special Impact Programs (Kennedy-Javits) (Began 1967)	LABOR-BWTP.	Will provide special programs of economic and community development, as well as manpower training, in communities and neighborhoods with especially large concentrations of low-income persons. For 1967 the program funded the Bedford-Stuyvesant Project in New York City and made monies available for CEP elsewhere.	Unemployed and below poverty level in urban poverty areas.	Yes	Yes
Title II-Section 205 (d)	Community Employment and Betterment (Operation Mainstream or Nelson) (Began 1965)	LABOR-BWTP.	Provides stipended employment and training to chronically unemployed poor in community improvement projects. Work is the primary concern. Many of the participants have been older persons.	Chronically unemployed adults in poverty.[g]	Yes	Yes
Title II-Section 205 (e)	New Careers (Scheuer) (Began 1966)	LABOR-BWTP.	Aims to develop entry-level employment opportunities in subprofessional positions for poverty-level persons, leading to career advancement. Focused on public sector (e.g., health, education, neighborhood redevelopment, etc.).	Adults below poverty level.[g]	Yes	Yes
Title II-Section 205 (and MDTA-Title II, Parts A and B; PWEDA).	Operation SER-Spanish-American Programs (Began 1967)	LABOR-MA OEO-CAP.	Program run by major Spanish-American organizations in 5 Southwestern states. Focus is on 11 urban areas with large concentrations of Spanish-surname population, to develop manpower program activities for the Spanish-American minority.	Spanish-surname persons of low-income in 11 urban areas in five states which have large Spanish-American populations.	Yes, depending on source of funds.	Depends on source of funds.

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Title II-Section 205 (a)	Manpower Programs (in Community Action Programs) (Began 1964)	OEO-CAP.	Manpower components in Community Action programs.	People below poverty level.	No, not usually.	Yes
Title II-Section 205 and 211-3	Adult Basic Education (In Community Action Programs) (Began 1964)	OEO-CAP.	Adult basic education components in Community Action programs.	Over 18, below poverty level, and with low education.	No	Yes
Title II-Section 205	Indian Training Programs (Began 1965)	OEO-CAP-SP-Indian Division.	Antipoverty programs, including job training, operated by the Indian tribal councils.	Indians over 16 on Federal reservations, unemployed, poor, or educationally disadvantaged.	Yes, for some trainees	No
Title II-Section 207	Research and Demonstration (Began 1964)	OEO-CAP-R and D.	Research and demonstration projects, with innovative techniques.	People below poverty level.	Depends on type of study.	No
Title III-Part B-Section 311	Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers (Began 1964)	OEO-CAP-SP-Migrant Division.	Special programs in housing, sanitation, job training, education, and day care of children, for migratory workers and other seasonal farm laborers and their families.	Migrant and seasonal farm workers and their families. Only heads of families, usually male, eligible for allowances.	Yes, for some trainees.	No

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Title V	Work Experience and Training Programs (Began 1965)	HEW-SRS-APA; HEW-OE-DMDT. LABOR-BES; LABOR-BAT;[c] LABOR-BWTP.	Provides work experience, some training, and supportive services for persons unable to support or care for themselves or their families (generally welfare clients). Provides stipends or supplements welfare allowances to equal the full applicable allotment under State's standard.	Welfare recipients and others eligible to receive public assistance.	Trainees receive public assistance or equivalent amounts plus training related expenses.	No
Vocational Education Act of 1963. Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. George-Barden Act of 1946.	Vocational Education (Began 1917, 1946, 1963.)	HEW-OE-BAVLP.	Non-stipended full-or part-time vocational training for high school students, out-of school youth, and adults. 1917 and 1946 Acts stipulated emphasis on agricultural and rural home economics. 1963 Act broadened mandate to include education for those with academic and socio-economic handicaps and aid for construction of school facilities.	Anyone who can benefit from vocational education.	No	Yes
Vocational Education Act of 1963	Work-Study (Began 1963)	HEW-OE-BAVLP.	Stipended part-time employment for vocational secondary students requiring financial assistance to continue schooling.	In-school youth enrolled in vocational education.	Yes (in form of subsidized wages).	Yes

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as amended in 1966						
Title III	Adult Basic Education (Began 1966, initially in 1964 under the Economic Act).	HEW-OE-BAVLP.	Adult basic education, on non-stipended basis, in classroom setting.	By law, all over 18 without high school diplomas are eligible. Actual emphasis on below 8th grade, with priority to those below 5th grade. Unemployed, heads of families, and welfare recipients are also designated as special targets.	No	Yes
Vocational Rehabilitation Act, as amended						
Chapter 4, Section 31, et seq.	Vocational Rehabilitation (Began 1921, 1943, and 1954)	HEW-SRS-RSA.	Vocational rehabilitation (including job training) services, with whatever supportive services are required, administered on an individual basis, with allowances as eligible, for the physically and mentally handicapped. Administrative regulations of 1965 extend eligibility to culturally handicapped, i.e., deviant social behavior resulting from vocational, educational, cultural, social, environmental or other factors.	Handicapped	In some cases.	Yes

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Social Security Act, as amended 1965						
Title II, Section 222 (d)	Vocational Rehabilitation for Social Security Disability Beneficiaries (Began 1965)	HEW-SRS-RSA.	Same type of vocational rehabilitation services, for disabled beneficiaries of Social Security.	Recipients of Social Security disability benefits.	No (receive Social Security disability allowances)	No
Title IV, Section 409	Community Work and Training (AFDC-UP Recipients) (Began 1962)	HEW-SRS-APA.	Non-stipended work experience and training program for AFDC-UP recipients, operative in 12 states in 1967.	Parents receiving AFDC-UP.	No (public assistance recipients). Receive supplements for training related expenses.	Yes
National Apprenticeship Act of 1937						
	Apprenticeship and Training Program	LABOR-BAT.	Federal government's role is only hortatory, i.e., encouraging and assisting employers and unions in developing programs.	General	No (receive wages)	No
Veterans' Pension and Readjustment Assistance Act of 1967						
Title III	Education and Training for Veterans	Veterans Administration.	No information available	No information available.	No information available.	No information available.

Table 2 (continued)

Summary Listing of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs

Legislative Authorization	Program	Administering Federal Agency	Program Features[a]	Target Population	Trainee Allowances	Matching Required
Adult Indian Vocational Training Act, P.L. 84, 969 as amended. Education and Welfare Services Act.						
	Adult Education, Vocational Training, and Employment Assistance for American Indians	Interior-BIA	No information available.	No information available.	No information available.	No information available.
Basic Laws Governing Operation of Bureau of Prisons, Title 18						
	Educational and Vocational Training for Federal Prisoners	JUSTICE-BOP	No information available.	No information available.	No information available.	No information available.

[a] Features refer to the characteristics of the program at the time of the study, Summer-Fall 1967.

[b] Date refers to passage of legislation authorizing the program.

[c] As of December 19, 1967, the duties of BAT with respect to OJT programs have been transferred to the Bureau of Work-Training Programs (BWTP), which was formerly the BWP.

[d] As of October 23, 1967, OMPER was dissolved and its functions absorbed directly into the Office of the Manpower Administrator.

[e] This listing does not take into consideration the changes in training programs affected by the EOA Amendments of 1967. These changes expand Title 1, B to include NYC, New Careers, Operation Mainstream, a general work and training program for out-of-school youth and adults, and legislative recognition for the Concentrated Employment Program. All of these would be encompassed in a local community's Comprehensive Work and Training Program. There is an appropriation of $53 million for OEO for Comprehensive Employment activities in Fiscal 1968. Many of the EOA programs are now authorized under different Section numbers.

[f] The 1967 EOA Amendments provide an NYC program for high school youth only; out-of-school youth would be included in the new Comprehensive Work and Training Program.

[g] Part of the new Comprehensive Work and Training Program; this will be opened to out-of-school youth.

[h] Under the 1967 EOA Amendments, the age range is 14 through 21 years.

* Adapted from: Greenleigh Associates, Inc., Opening the doors: Job training programs, Washington: Government Printing Office, February, 1968. 2 vols.

** Supplemental Acronyms (See Appendix C for complete list of acronyms)

APA	Assistance Payments Administration, SRS, HEW (formerly Bureau of Family Services)
BAT	Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
BAVLP	Bureau of Adult, Vocational and Library Programs, OE, HEW
BES	Bureau of Employment Security, MA, DOL
BIA	Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior
BOP	Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice
BWTP	Bureau of Work-Training Programs, MA, DOL
CAP	Division of Community Action Programs, OEO
DMDT	Division of Manpower Development and Training, OE, HEW
EDA	Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce or Economic Development Act

HEW	U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
MA	Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
OE	Office of Education, HEW
OEO	Office of Economic Opportunity
OMPER	Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, MA, DOL (as of Oct. 23, 1967, OMPER was abolished and its functions absorbed directly into the Manpower Administration)
R & D	Research and Demonstration Division, CAP, OEO or Research and Demonstration Programs
RSA	Rehabilitation Services Administration, SRS, HEW (formerly the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration)
SBA	Small Business Administration, Department of Commerce
SP	Division of Special Field Projects, CAP, OEO
SRS	Social and Rehabilitation Service, HEW

forms of education and training for veterans, Indians, and federal prisoners and are administered by the Veterans Administration, the Department of Interior, and the Justice Department, respectively.

Seven programs arise from MDTA: Institutional training; part-time and other-than-skill, on-the-job training, Coupled-OJT, Redevelopment Area Residents training, training for correctional institutions, and experimental and demonstration programs. Administrative responsibilities have been discharged by Labor's Bureau of Employment Security (BES), Bureau of Apprenticeship Training (BAT), and the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research (OMPER), and by HEW's Office of Education. It should be remembered that the MDT Act was initially designed to retrain adult family heads displaced by economic and technological change. With the tightening of labor markets, its emphasis has shifted to the disadvantaged (Mangum, December 28-29, 1967).

Twelve training programs are encompassed under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended to 1966: Job Corps, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Special Impact (also called Kennedy-Javits program), Community Employment and Betterment (Operation Mainstream or the Nelson amendment), New Careers (Scheuer), Operation SER Spanish-American programs, Manpower Programs (in Community Action Programs), Adult Basic Education (in Community Action Programs), Indian Training Programs, Research and Demonstration, Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers, Work Experience and Training Programs. With the exception of the last program, which is administered by HEW, all programs are administered either by OEO or by the Department of Labor.

Two programs arose through executive decision of the President: Ghetto-Aid and the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP). Ghetto-Aid (or Five Cities) offers job training through bids by private industry in addition to job guarantees. The five cities involved are Boston, Washington, Chicago, Los Angeles, and San Antonio (What the JOBS program is all about, 1968). CEP seeks to reach out and recruit persons within specifically targeted areas (19 cities and two rural areas) which have been selected because of their chronic employment needs. It is designed to provide the full continuum of services required to mobilize persons for productive employment, and has been called "potentially the best coordinated manpower effort developed so far" (Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967). Labor is the administering agency.

Eight remaining pieces of legislation account for the other ten programs, with administration still predominantly by HEW or Labor. The four legislative acts which are implemented under the auspices of HEW include the following: (1) the Vocational Education Act of 1963 which, in addition to related legislation of 1917 and 1946, resulted in the Vocational Education program and the work-study program; (2) Adult Basic Education which arises from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as amended in 1966; (3) the Vocational Rehabilitation program which arises from the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, as amended; (4) and the

Social Security Act, as amended in 1965, which resulted in Vocational Rehabilitation for Social Security Disability Beneficiaries and Community Work and Training which is targeted to AFDC-UP recipients (Aid to Families of Dependent Children with Unemployed Parents).

Of the remaining four programs, the Apprenticeship and Training Program under the National Apprenticeship Act of 1937 was included even though it is not strictly a training program but rather a vehicle for encouraging industrial management and unions in the development of programs. Administration is by the Department of Labor. Education and training for veterans is provided for by the Veteran's Pension and Readjustment Assistance Act of 1967, which is administered by the Veteran's Administration. The Department of the Interior administers the Adult Education, Vocational Training, and Employment Assistance Program for American Indians provided for in the Adult Indian Vocational Training Act, PL 84, 969 as amended. The Justice Department administers the Education and Vocational Training Program for Federal Prisoners provided for by the Basic Laws governing Operation of the Bureau of Prisons, Title 18.

Program Administration

The recent rapid growth of the federally-supported job training programs in number, magnitude, and scope has been accompanied by growing diversity in administrative aspects. Administration of training programs at the federal level may be by a single agency or by more than one agency. When a single agency is involved, more than one bureau may also be involved.

From the federal level to the local community, the administrative lines (1) may be operated entirely by state government agencies in accordance with State Plans; (2) may use state machinery but operate on a project rather than a grant basis; (3) may be administered on a project basis through the federal agencies' regional offices, or (4) may operate through direct channels from federal to local level. The different procedural steps required for every program add to the complexity of funding procedures, and every layer in the structure is a potential delay. Since the federally-supported programs are pipelines which serve to channel funds into local communities for the implementation of national goals, the crucial procedure in the training program activity is funding, for which a multiplicity of arrangements exists (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

Level of Authority

Every possible variation of funding exists for a given level of authority. State Plans may constitute final approval; final approval may rest upon the dollar amount of the project (i.e., a cutoff amount); approval may depend upon the nature of the program; it could occur at more than one level (regional and national, state and regional,etc.); or it could occur at only one of these levels (state or regional or national). All of these variations affect coordination at the various levels, particularly at the local level, and they complicate funding by the confusion they create.

Project-by-Project Vs. Block Funding

Disregarding the level at which funding is approved, two methods exist by which projects are funded: project-by-project or block. In the former, the administering federal agency gives specific approval to individual projects, passing on each project separately. In the latter the agency is not required to pass on specific projects at the community level but makes grants to the states upon approval of the State Plan. The states then disburse funds to the communities (Vocational Education, Vocational Rehabilitation, and Adult Basic Education are examples). Project-by-project approval fosters delay and red tape, is cumbersome and time-consuming, and inhibits the flexibility which is required at the local level; without it, however, the government loses control of the quality of services. State administrators, on the other hand, maintain that the best procedure is funding through State departments, i.e., block funding (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

Funding Periods

Funding is for one-year periods in all training programs. For those programs that are well-established, this does not cause undue operating difficulties; for newer programs, however, uncertainty as to whether the program will be continued is a tremendous obstacle in planning and operating local projects. It produces great difficulties in regard to assembling staff, enrollees, and facilities.

Time Lags

Complaints about funding delays appear to be widespread, although, according to Greenleigh Associates (Part II, 1968), no assessment is possible due to the fragmentary nature of the available information. Greenleigh analysts found great variations in processing time among programs and even within the same program. Delays could arise from the funding procedure itself, Congressional appropriations, changes in program regulations, reallocation of funds, etc.

Regional Boundaries

Administration and coordination of the training programs is further complicated by the discrepancy in regional boundaries which stems from the fact that each agency divides the country differently: Labor divides the country into 11 regions for BES and BAT: HEW recognizes 9 regions; and OEO recognizes 7. Therefore, a would-be sponsor for a community training project might have to contact agencies in different regions to secure program approval. Conceivably, a program could require transactions with a very large, widely dispersed group of regional offices encompassing geographic areas with diverse interests. Because of overlapping jurisdictions for certain states, the regional representatives called to consider a program might be concerned with quite diverse problems which originate within their respective areas.

Coordination

The Real Problem and Its Implications

The proliferation of coordinating mechanisms has been even more rapid than that of manpower programs (Levitan & Mangum, 1967). Coordinating mechanisms have been established at each of three levels--federal, state, and local--and all levels have been hampered by various administrative complications. Although the programs have indeed produced new knowledge, services, and assistance, they have also resulted in duplicated functions, conflict in the federal agencies, confusion at the community level, and imbalanced funding.

According to Levitan and Mangum (1967), the most effective coordinating efforts at the federal level are ad hoc arrangements between the "loyal underground of civil servants." Least effective are efforts at the cabinet level where authority delegated by Congress has been conflicting. The middleground consists of various formal interagency agreements which are unenforceable but continue because they prove to be mutually convenient.

The real problem of coordination is at the state and local levels for, with minor exceptions, the training programs are initiated and administered by state and community agencies. Coordination between the state and local community, although important and offering great potential, has received little encouragement from the state governments. An example of what could be accomplished from such a program is New York City Mayor John Lindsay's Human Resources Administration which attempts to act as a "broker" by establishing all manpower and welfare functions under a single agency (Levitan & Mangum, 1967).

Just as at the federal level, ad hoc arrangements are also implemented at the local level. Most of these arrangements involve community action agencies and state employment agencies. Community action agencies are the local coordinators of poverty efforts and perform the same function in a local role that OEO performs in its national role. In most cases, these agencies have been unable to effectively mobilize resources to aid the disadvantaged. In fact, local efforts to coordinate manpower programs"...have paralleled federal efforts in motivation, approaches, and degree of success [Levitan & Mangum, 1967, p.19]"

As negative as the overall picture of coordination appears, it is particularly negative at the community level. A community which has competent representation in Washington and which is aware of the variety of programs offered and their diverse eligibility and funding stipulations still may have difficulties; and

> the community which lacks sophistication about the maze of programs and regulations may never discover the handles that turn on the spigots of federal aid. ...Even communities which master the art of grantsmanship find it difficult to piece together effective and comprehensive programs [Levitan & Mangum, 1967, p. 14]

The following excerpt is a presentation by Levitan and Mangum (1967) of typical problems faced by local administrators in the initiation and operation of federally-supported manpower programs:

> (1) multi-agency administration of particular programs results in delays in review and approval of proposals; (2) various combinations of federal, state and local agencies are often in competition to serve the same clientele; (3) programs and facilities may be duplicated and not fully utilized; (4) state and local officials are confused by the variety of programs and the less sophisticated (and often the most needy) fail to get their full share of available federal support; (5) uncertainty or delays in refunding often cause disintegration of carefully constructed staffs and programs; (6) each federal funding source tends to generate its own local constituency encouraging proliferation at the local level; and (7) the overhead costs are increased [p. 13].

The increase in public and private agencies and contractors for manpower programs is not due solely to the federal programs; proliferation of funding sources at the local level becomes particularly complicating when combined with the fragmented local governments which are typical of our political system. According to Levitan and Mangum (1967) the unification of federal manpower program funding sources would not eliminate fragmentation at the local level but it would at least encourage consolidation. Indeed, the authors argue that a unified federal source of funding manpower programs would reduce confusion and free federal officials to devote their talents to overall program evaluation and technical assistance to the states and communities; furthermore, unification would force a comprehensive review of the duplication of functions.

As it stands now, initiative for program development at the local level can come from numerous diverse sources: (1) on-the-job training can be promoted by federal, state, local, and private contracting agencies; (2) adult basic education funds can be sought by schools, welfare agencies, vocational rehabilitation counselors, community action agencies, and public or private contractors of demonstration projects; (3) skill training can be promoted by local public employment offices, public or private welfare organizations, community action agencies, and vocational rehabilitation agencies, although it may be administered either by the public schools or by private educational institutions (Levitan & Mangum, 1967).

Interagency Relationships

Besides the organization structure (composed primarily of Labor, HEW, and OEO), a number of informal interagency working relationships and committees exist to facilitate administration and to coordinate efforts for the federally-supported job training programs. These groups and committees all have different origins, functions, and levels of activity (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

The President's Committee on Manpower (PCOM) is comprised of Cabinet members and is chaired by the Secretary of Labor. It is charged with coordinating training programs and is also responsible for establishing policy. Its latest major activity occurred in 1966 when a series of three-man investigating teams was dispatched to thirty major metropolitan areas to examine program coordination at the local level. Team reports disclosed such fragmentation, confusion, and administrative problems of implementation that the Department of Labor developed the Manpower Administration Regional Organization (MARO) and the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP).

The Economic Opportunity Council is also composed of Cabinet members and is chaired by the OEO director. Although this committee has statutory responsibility for coordinating antipoverty efforts throughout the government, its dominance is merely titular. A second concern of the committee is improving information on program availability. Its initiative and efforts in this area have resulted in the publication of the Catalog of Federal Assistance Programs and the tab runs of state programs.

The Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System (CAMPS) coordinates plans for manpower programs on a voluntary basis by bringing together all the agencies involved in the manpower programs. Plans are developed at the local level, incorporated into state level plans, and reviewed at regional and federal levels. Obviously, the requirements for implementation are awesome. Although not directly involved in administration, CAMPS was established to expedite program activities. Since most of the State Plans were approved as recently as August, 1967, it is too early to assess the CAMPS effort.

A number of ad hoc task forces, variously designated by agencies of the President, study particular features of the programs (e.g., reporting requirements and the funding procedures) and make recommendations on policies and procedures. Unfortunately, even though the recommendations may be helpful, there are many which apparently are not implemented (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

The Joint Administrative Task Force is composed of the Assistant Secretaries for Administration from Labor, OEO, HEW, Commerce, and HUD. Members make recommendations on administrative problems and generally report to the White House. Some of their recommendations have been implemented.

Other interagency committees are the National Manpower Policy Task Force, the Labor-HEW Coordinating Committee, the Interagency Review Committee for MDTA-Section 241 Projects (Redevelopment Area), and the Washington Interagency Review Group. The NMP Task Force is an ad hoc group which investigates specific issues for the Executive Branch. The Labor-HEW committee, with its ad hoc membership, works out interagency relationships, performs problem solving, and makes decisions for funding those MDTA projects which require Washington approval. The Interagency Review Committee operates on an ad hoc basis with representatives from BES, BAT, EDA (Economic Development Administration-Commerce) or any other involved federal agencies. It makes decisions regarding funding of MDTA Redevelopment Area projects. The Washington Interagency Review Group is composed of representatives from HUD, Labor, HEW, OEO, and the Budget Committee. It is involved with the development of guidelines for Neighborhood Centers applications and the review of applications for Model Cities planning grants.

The Manpower Administration Regional Organization, (MARO) although within the Labor Department and therefore not strictly an interagency committee, nonetheless addresses itself to the interagency coordination problem. It was designed to achieve more effective administration of the manpower programs by improving coordination and communications among the various levels. It was in the process of development at the printing of the Greenleigh study (Greenleigh Associates, 1968) and, at that time, plans called for Regional Manpower Administrators to be appointed in seven regions to perform such functions as expediting program activities which cut across more than one bureau's programs; promoting cooperation among federal, state, and local agencies; supervising CEP; chairing the Regional Coordinating Committee; and serving as contact men with various public groups or individuals within a region. When fully operative, presumably it will change the role of the Manpower Administration Regional Executive Committees (MAREC), which were established in eleven regional-office cities as field counterparts of the Manpower Administration's Executive Staff. When MARO is operative, MAREC's regional installations will become committees chaired by the Regional Manpower Administrator for each region.

The Proposed Function of the Interagency Structure

Despite many good intentions, fundamental defects exist in the job training area. Existing legislation has created limits within which it is difficult to effect coordination: a basic restriction is that insufficient funds have been committed for a really significant investment. While the interagency structure cannot be expected to overcome such fundamental defects, there are nevertheless areas in which this structure could bring to bear its influence for improved coordination which could be implemented by interagency committees (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968): (1) manpower policy, goals, and priorities should be articulated; (2) an ongoing information exchange of programmatic activities and procedures within the governmental bureaus, departments, agencies, etc., is needed; (3) direct and specific information, which is authoritatively interpreted and provides direction with respect to the availability of programs and their requirements, should be available; (4) problems which do not have statutory provenance are especially amenable to solution and should be attacked, e. g., streamlining funding procedures, developing regular evaluating procedures, remedying duplication within a program.

Program Assessment: Needs and Findings

Needs

Tremendous disparity exists between the number of individuals who need job training and those who are being served by job training. It is estimated that 10 percent of those persons in need of training are able to enroll. Even more surprising is that this figure is probably inflated since any estimate must be a rough approximation due to the following considerations: (1) the number of enrollees is an optimal figure based on goals keyed to the proposed funding levels in the President's budget; (2) the number of eligibles is estimated from sources which are both varied and lacking in visibility; and (3) the final calculation is based on a duplicating universe in which target populations and eligibles overlap (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

Are programs fulfilling objectives and serving target populations? Adequate answers are not forthcoming and assessments are largely inconclusive. In order to evaluate the degree to which the various program objectives have been met and to assess the efficiency and costs at which the objectives were accomplished, data collection and analytical techniques must be adequate. At present, evaluative procedures and reports maintained or commissioned by the various agencies are "neither extensive nor adequate;" in short, effective assessment requires a more comprehensive evaluation than has been performed to date (Greenleigh Associates, Part II, 1968).

According to the Task Force on Manpower Program Statistics, (created through PCOM to assess the adequacy of data reporting systems for MDTA, NYC, Job Corps, work experience, and adult basic education and community action manpower programs under EOA) serious shortcomings exist (_Examination of the war on poverty_, 1967). The Task Force, chaired by Garth Mangum and manned by technicians from each of the major administering agencies, reported the following findings: (1) All programs collect relevant data, but the adequacy varies. Only a few programs have attempted well designed, statistically valid evaluations; and while reporting of data and results has been annual for some programs, it has been nonexistant for most. Worse than the scarcity of data is the disuse of those data that are available. (2) No reporting mechanism exists at present for evaluating programs on a comparative basis, i.e., in relation to each other for the purpose of determining which program is actually serving a particular need. (3) No design for data analysis is available which would allow for program evaluation at state and local levels and thus provide feedback to program administrators.

These and other findings led the task force to recommend that (1) a common vocabulary be developed among the relevant agencies to facilitate meaningful cross comparisons; (2) consistent guidelines for adequate evaluation be developed through interagency discussion and agency planning; (3) an overall system for compilation and analysis of summary data for each program be implemented at the federal level to allow for comparisons of persons served, services provided, and costs incurred; and (4) the inadequate commitment to evaluation in terms of money and staff be recognized and remedied.

The lack of evaluative criteria and the scarcity of information for estimating the contributions manpower programs have made to economic independence for participants are widely documented (Levitan, 1967a; Mangum, 1967a; Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967; Somers, 1968; Marshall & Briggs, 1968; Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968). In addition to these problems, at least two others obscure the evaluation of the manpower programs and render assessments inconclusive (Mangum, 1967a). One problem is the political context within which the programs are developed and implemented. Ideally, program objectives are identified at the outset and the degree to which objectives are met is ultimately assessed. However, the development is not that orderly for programs developed through political processes. Besides the fact that objectives are rarely defined adequately, original assumptions are often shown to be unrealistic after experience. Conditions are always subject to change and programs are revised either by amendment, or more likely, by administrative practice. A second difficulty is that many of the objectives proposed for the programs are nonquantifiable and cannot be assessed except according to assumption and judgment. Furthermore, many of the antipoverty measures cannot be assessed in the near future because their impact will not be discernible for years.

In sum, then, it can be stated that although programs have been initiated with much concern for delivering services and disseminating funds, the hasty initiation has resulted in scant provision for building in organizational capability or evaluation of results; and no manpower program has a system of reporting which is capable of producing the kind or quality of data required for a truly effective evaluation (Mangum, 1967a).

According to an investigation by Levitan and Mangum (1967), however, the few independent evaluations which have been made attest to the fact that benefits exceed costs by a substantial margin, a margin which merits support and justifies expansion. Therefore, the issue is not the worth of these programs but the improvements which are possible. Such improvements are the essence of program investigations reported from three different sources: Greenleigh Associates' report to the CATP; the "Clark Committee" report to the senate; and the policy papers produced by the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations for Michigan University-Wayne State (primarily those papers authored by Levitan or Mangum).

Greenleigh Associates (Part I, 1968), performed an extensive investigation of job training programs (primarily those arising under MDTA and EOA) which included numerous field studies plus searching out the most recent statistics available for those programs within their purview. While the Greenleigh analysts provide all available statistical information and present those insights produced by the various field studies, they recognize that such information does not constitute full program evaluation and they alert the reader to this shortcoming.

The Clark Committee (Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967) based its evaluation on public hearings, inspection trips, staff and consultant reports, case studies, and statistical analysis of manpower programs by consultants. This extensive evaluation resulted in 18 volumes of hearings and 8 volumes of consultant and staff reports relating primarily to those programs arising under the Economic Opportunity Act.

The Policy Papers produced by the Michigan University-Wayne State Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations are part of a larger project to evaluate manpower programs under a grant from the Ford Foundation. These papers include MDTA programs in addition to the NYC, Job Corps, and work experience programs which exist under the Economic Opportunity Act.

Evaluative efforts consisting of findings and recommendations from all three sources will be presented.

Findings

MDTA Programs: Institutional and on-the-Job Training

Mangum (1967a) indicated that data reporting and evaluation for MDTA programs were superior to comparable information for any other manpower or antipoverty program. He cautioned, however, that the MDTA system looks good only when contrasted with the other programs, which are categorically weak in data collection and analysis. MDTA's data system is capable of providing most of the information needed for evaluation but it lacks the immediacy required for day-to-day program management. It offers neither completeness of reporting nor accuracy; moreover, the data suffer more from disuse than misuse. Still, MDTA was launched by an agency which was experienced in data collection and analysis; and despite its shortcomings, it is hoped that MDTA's lead in reporting and analysis will become a model for other programs.

The data providing the basis for Mangum's evaluation of MDTA activities suffered from certain basic limitations, according to that investigator. Besides the uncertainty of accuracy on local and state forms, post-training information was seriously under reported, and no follow-up was available beyond the first year. Insufficiency of the available data also precluded assessing the MDTA program on the basis of its various components, which would have supplemented assessment of the program as a whole. Despite these shortcomings, Mangum's appraisal was favorable. He concluded that, although MDTA contribution to the overall reduction of poverty is small, it has nonetheless contributed significantly to the income of its poor enrollees. Still, the dent made by MDTA efforts is barely noticeable.

Even though MDTA has made substantial contributions to the welfare of trainees and to the economy, it is yet to be submitted to an overall cost-benefit study which is "adequate in size, in data and in concept to provide definitive results for the program as a whole [Mangum, 1967a, p. 67]." The results of those studies which have been performed are consistent enough and the margins of benefits over costs large enough to establish that the program was a good economic investment. [For a more detailed treatment of those studies which have been performed, see pp.66-71 in Mangum (1967a).]

Specifically, Mangum reports that MDTA-Institutional suffers from "built-in 'creaming' tendencies" since it serves primarily those who seek help from an Employment Service Office. Still, institutional training clearly serves a more disadvantaged group than does OJT. Overall, MDTA program completers experience more stable employment and higher post-training earnings compared to control groups and to their own pre-training experience.

The Clark Committee reported that at least half the persons in MDTA-institutional programs are from low-income families while the proportion of disadvantaged is much lower in MDTA-OJT. There is also nation-wide evidence of an unfavorable selectivity in occupations for which Negroes are trained, even though Negroes appear to get their share of MDTA-institutional positions. This selectivity is particularly noticeable in southern states. OJT programs were reported to have placed 93.6 percent in jobs (90.6 percent training-related). This is a better placement record than the 75.0 percent placed by institutional training (62.5 percent training-related). Efforts in "coupling" OJT with institutional training are falling short of the goal established by the Labor Department. Major obstacles appear to be conflicting philosophies and lack of cooperation between the operators of the two types of training. Overall, a significant upward effect on straight time hourly earnings was reported for MDTA program completers who successfully obtained employment (median increase from $1.44 to $1.74 an hour).

Greenleigh Associates report several shortcomings in the operation of the MDTA programs, the most irksome being the duplication in job development. On-the-job training (i.e., the OJT phase of MDTA) is presently being emphasized and the Johnson Administration has particularly advocated greater involvement in job training by the private sector; accordingly, many agencies have become involved. Unfortunately agencies frequently stray outside their boundaries (which are only loosely defined) and more than one job developer may contact an employer. Subsequent confusion and duplication is largely due to the lack of a master plan for employer contact within a community. Equalizing opportunity for the disadvantaged is another MDTA shortcoming, i.e., enrollees are drawn less often from the disadvantaged population than is desirable. (MDTA's Ten Cities Coupled-OJT contracts for training the disadvantaged by private industry are an effort to redress this imbalance.) Other undesirable characteristics which have been observed in MDTA-OJT activities include inadequate supportive services, inadequate and cursory monitoring, insufficient evaluation, and excessive paperwork.

The quality of MDTA training is also in need of improvement. Although training ranges from high-level skills to minimal entry-level duties, analysts found evidence of resentment among trainees because of the low level of jobs for which training was offered; even the extremely disadvantaged were resentful. And in programs where training was supposedly for higher-quality jobs, program administrators regarded such training as insufficient.

A related shortcoming is the lack of sequential linkage with work and training programs which are geared to lower skill levels. Despite the many different kinds of programs present and amenable to alignment, no rational sequence of training programs was found in any community studied by Greenleigh Associates. This nonsequential nature could be remedied without major statutory changes. For instance, NYC completers graduate into nothingness; and often the program serves merely as an income maintenance program, rarely providing meaningful training. Completers, then, often cannot find permanent employment in adequate jobs. Those who do not return to school need more job training but rarely are directed into higher-level programs like MDTA. It is felt, therefore, that MDTA should serve as a reception center for graduates of lesser skill programs, e.g., EOA and Title IV-SSA. If this is to be the case, quality must be improved and a battery of supportive and remedial services should be provided. (Frequently, a program offering becomes unrealistic because some programs e.g., minimal skill occupations, stipulate excessively long training periods to make up for the lack of supportive services needed to facilitate movement through training.)

A further need of MDTA programs is to change the stipend distinction which affects graduates of lower-skill training programs and welfare recipients; the stipend distinction results in lower payment for youth and forfeiture equivalent to welfare allowances for welfare recipients.

Economic Opportunity Act Programs

Job Corps

Levitan (1967a) reports that sophisticated efforts for evaluating the Job Corps have been used only under Congressional pressure applied to OEO. Subsequent studies conducted for OEO by Louis Harris and Associates have resulted in analysis of achievements based largely on data about which Levitan has a number of reservations. First, the sample on which the study was based did not appear to be representative (at least one bias was under-representation of younger enrollees; since older completers are more likely to obtain employment and to receive higher wages, this under-representation tends to overestimate achievements of the Corps). Second, it is unlikely that reporting by enrollees was entirely accurate.

Dr. Glen Cain (Levitan, 1967a) of OEO performed a fairly sophisticated cost-benefit analysis which established that the Job Corps investment met the economic test of efficiency. However, since Levitan feels that available data are rarely adequate for really conclusive cost-benefit studies, he asserts that no conclusive case has yet been made for the Corps' past performance and that perhaps alternatives exist which are less costly. Although he maintains that Corps training is to some extent valuable (for instance, it has been clearly established that the longer a corpsman remains in a center, the greater the probability that he will be employed and use his training), he calls for more convincing data to justify the expenditure of $8000+ per year for maintaining a youth in the Corps.

The Clark Committee (Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967) cites Job Corps trends which were uncovered in its examination of antipoverty efforts: (1) the average age of enrollees is getting younger, and (2) enrollment for Negro and other nonwhite participants is increasing. The first trend is partially due to improvements in the economy which resulted in a tighter labor market and more available jobs for the 18 and older age group. Unfortunately, the 16 and 17 year olds who are more apt to enroll are often less motivated, usually remain in the Corps a shorter time, and may not graduate; also, fewer obtain employment after they leave because they are not as well prepared or because of age restrictions which prevent them from entering certain occupations.

The Clark Committee claims that the Job Corps has the best data system of all the EOA programs but points out that useful information is just becoming available and that comparative data are scarce. In recognition of such shortcomings, the committee has proposed legislation (in the form of the 1967 EOA Amendments) which should aid in overcoming the deficiencies pointed out by various investigators. These deficiencies include nonsystematic evaluation, poor counseling and placement, and lack of cooperation with the local community. Greenleigh analysts acknowledge these shortcomings and suggest that the 1967 EOA amendments will remedy many of them.

Work and Training Programs

Neighborhood Youth Corps. NYC consists of in-school, out-of-school, and summer programs for which the primary goal is "meaningful" work for enrollees. The crucial test for the in-school program, according to Levitan (1967a), is whether it provides sufficient incentives for participants to complete their education. In spite of two separate surveys performed by Pittsburgh and District of Columbia school systems, no conclusive data have been developed for demonstrating its effectiveness in deterring dropouts.

The out-of-school program is more expensive and also relies more on the goal of "meaningful" work for enrollees than the in-school program. Since NYC labor is, in reality, free labor for cooperating agencies and sponsors, the goal of meaningful work may be jeopardized at the outset because sponsors have little incentive to provide productive work.

Some evidence does exist for opening employment opportunities, particularly for female enrollees, and such evidence lends credence to the fact that all work assignments are not merely "make work." A study by Dunlap (Levitan, 1967a) indicated that a larger percentage of females than males was employed in the agencies which provided the NYC work assignments. This shows that work assignments for women were more an integral part of agency operations than assignments for males and thus constituted less "make work." However, the Dunlap study used such broad occupational classifications that the evidence is obscured.

Available evidence, although limited, suggests that the in-school program is accomplishing its purpose. Furthermore, the summer program is unquestionably needed and may function as "anti-riot" insurance. The major issue in the out-of-school program is limited funds: either the program can be enriched or the number of enrollees can be increased. Congress and the administration have tried for both with the result that efforts are fractured. With its limited resources, NYC can fulfill only a minimum and immediate need; and it is misleading to claim more for it than that it serves as an "aging vat" by helping youth obtain a job and minimum support at a time in their lives when this is most difficult.

The Clark Committee acknowledged the lack of program information and the shortage of completed evaluative studies for the NYC program. According to the committee, this shortcoming is being remedied through the nationwide program data system which is currently being made operative. Furthermore, it is reported that a number of independent evaluations are underway.

Greenleigh Associates report that NYC is a "necessary and useful program" although it does not always provide meaningful work experience and training, nor does it have adequate sequential linkage with other programs. It is reported to be a "make-work" or holding operation on the whole, although in a few instances it has been an effective training program (e.g., in Alameda County, California).

Work Experience and Training. Title V of the Economic Opportunity Act is aimed at helping welfare recipients and needy adults to become self-supporting. According to Levitan (1967a) any assessment of the program depends on one's perspective or interpretation of the goals. An additional obstacle is the absence of hard data on program operations. Title V administrators had not obtained follow-up data on former trainees at the writing of Levitan's evaluation. Such data, if available, would have indicated the proportion and types of enrollees who stay on their jobs for some period of time after placement. Those data that are available show only the employment status at the time trainees left the project; and even these data are frequently inconsistent or contradictory. In spite of insufficient data, Levitan reports that the House Committee on Education and Labor along with its counterpart, the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare (the Clark Committee) claim success for WEP but base it on a few anecdotes and very little hard evidence. Levitan asserts that the Title V goal is too ambitious, and that a more convincing argument for achievement of objectives could be made on the basis of more modest criteria. For example, the program saved thousands of families from deprivation in eastern Kentucky for over two years. In that particular setting, a need was met. In a different setting, however, it may not be possible to achieve worthwhile efforts, and therefore, a flexible approach is a must.

Two specific problems exist with respect to the operation of this program. (1) In most states, relief earnings are deducted from assistance to recipients. This provides little incentive for accepting a job. Furthermore, after acceptance of a job, it becomes increasingly difficult to return to the welfare rolls upon loss of that job. (2) The Welfare Administration and state and local welfare agencies have had only limited experience with this type of program and may not be providing enrollees with meaningful skill training because of their own lack of expertise.

The Clark Committee reports that this program has the lowest rate of placement, in either jobs or further training slots, of all the manpower programs. This is explained partially by the fact that the program is targeted to the most disadvantaged groups of the unemployed; it is further explained by the fact that the work does little to raise employability because it does not relate to the occupations in which job openings exist or where occupational advancement is possible. It is claimed that the program does reach the intended population and that it has strengthened the work of public welfare agencies.

Greenleigh analysts call for an entirely new approach to the training needs of this population. A comprehensive service is needed in addition to greater emphasis on supportive services.

Mainstream. Community Employment and Betterment, also known as the Nelson Amendment or Operation Mainstream, established two goals which appear to be contradictory: "to hire chronically unemployed workers in community service jobs and to provide upward mobility [Levitan, 1967b, p. 179]." Levitan reports that the latter goal is not likely to be achieved. The Clark Committee asserts that the program is effective since the work provided for older persons is a desirable result by itself. Greenleigh analysts report that Mainstream operates as a stopgap program and that provisions should be made for more adequately preparing participants to obtain competitive employment.

New Careers. Also known as the Scheuer program, New Careers emphasizes the development of entry level employment opportunities in subprofessional positions which will hopefully lead to career advancement. The Clark Committee notes that more attention should be given to assuring that "new career" jobs will be available upon completion of training. Levitan tends to view the program as another stopgap measure, even though it offers more than just entry jobs to the poor and to slum residents. The Greenleigh study indicated that the goal of developing career lines for training the disadvantaged has not always been implemented adequately.

Concentrated Employment Program. CEP is designed for outreach and recruitment in certain designated areas of persons who are most in need of work or training. Greenleigh analysts and the Clark Committee agree that program design and goals are very valuable even though the program is too new for more formal assessment.

Special Impact

The Purpose of the SI program is to establish programs in communities having especially large concentrations of low-income persons. Based on one year's experience, the Clark Committee reports that successful program operation is to a large degree dependent on the cooperation of community residents. The committee has further recognized that solving unemployment problems in urban ghettos requires a concurrent attack on the rural unemployment which stimulates migration to city slums.

Community Action Programs

The purpose of community action agencies are both varied and vague. The experience of these agencies in hiring the poor to perform subprofessional duties (one of the numerous purposes) is viewed by Levitan (1967b) as an example of the difficulties of developing job opportunities with upward mobility. He contends that agency offerings consist of poor jobs providing relatively low income and limited career prospects.

Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers

Greenleigh Associates report that very little is being done to enhance the employment prospects for this group although they acknowledge that the 1967 Economic Opportunity Act Amendments can remedy the situation.

Adult Basic Education

The need for basic education was among the most compelling problems identified by the Greenleigh study, both for actual enrollees and potential enrollees. In most cities surveyed by Greenleigh analysts, there existed almost no coordination between manpower programs and ABE programs. The two kinds of programs appeared to operate on "entirely separate tracks" with operators of manpower programs seemingly unaware of the existence of ABE programs. The authors concluded that offering disadvantaged persons literacy training without job training, and *vice versa*, was wasteful and inefficient.

Vocational Education

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 reoriented the traditional vocational education focus on training for occupational categories and shifted the objective to meeting the training needs of people, i.e., serving those individuals having academic and socioeconomic handicaps which prevented their participation in regular programs. The Act also provided for a closer alliance with the Employment Service in order to provide for a more direct relationship between training and labor market needs.

According to Mangum (1967a) the Act has not significantly affected the status and content of vocational education, despite the potential it holds, due to the lack of federal leadership.

Although new objectives were endorsed and available funds were multiplied, little change has occurred. One factor may be the fact that three or four fiscal years is too short a time for a mature and established institution to change. A second factor is that there was little incentive for change: scant encouragement was offered for shifting from an "occupational grouping to a people-serving orientation."

As a result, change has been slow and minor: training occupations reflect the traditional orientation more than current labor market needs; offerings for academically or socioeconomically disadvantaged are limited; establishment of innovative projects and implementation of proven experiments have not been forthcoming.

Greenleigh Associates studied vocational education programs only in relationship to the national job training effort (out-of-school programs). Two major findings emerged: (1) no mandate exists to emphasize the needs of the disadvantaged even though there is a special needs program with the potential to serve this purpose; (2) linkages between vocational education and local job training programs are either inadequate or nonexistent, i.e., adult vocational education offerings are not appropriate to the training needs of the disadvantaged.

Vocational Rehabilitation

Mangum reports that VR annually places more disadvantaged persons in competitive employment than MDTA or EOA, and at lower costs. However, the clientele have physical and mental handicaps rather than cultural or economic ones, and very little training is provided. The particular value of the program lies in its "client-oriented" approach of individualized comprehensive services.

Greenleigh analysts reported that VR programs serve only a small portion of those who need VRA attention. It was further observed in the Greenleigh study that VRA is largely isolated, i.e., it tends to keep its operations apart from local job training programs. This isolation derives from the self-contained nature of the program, its limited financial resources, and its long-established administrative structure within the state government.

Apprenticeship

Although the Greenleigh analysts did not investigate apprenticeship programs _per se_, they did report that deep aspirations to apprenticeship, coupled with bitter resentment at the difficult entry into trade skills, were frequently encountered among the disadvantaged.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the firsthand findings of the inspection trips of the Greenleigh analysts, plus their statistical review of all available relevant documents and publications. These recommendations have general application to all the training programs. Wherever possible, the Greenleigh recommendations will be supplemented with recommendations from other sources, whether to lend support to their findings or to espouse the opposite view.

The recommendations are extensive and varied because the problems identified in the federally-supported manpower programs are extensive and varied. Not all problems are amenable to prompt resolution but enough experience has been accumulated to provide a foundation for intelligent action. For the most part, the suggestions in the recommendations are operational, i.e., they will achieve results upon implementation.

A Single Cabinet-Level Agency

According to Greenleigh Associates (Part I, 1968) and in agreement with the 1967 Report of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare (1967), consolidation of program administration in a single agency would not improve the problems of coordination and fragmentation encountered in the present arrangement. Instead, consolidation would introduce more awkwardness because of the change in established administrative arrangements it would require. Furthermore, the present administrative structure, despite its shortcomings, utilizes the expertise of Labor, HEW, and OEO in their respective areas. It is hoped that more experience will decrease the current awkwardness and confusion, which is probably due to the relatively short history of most of the programs (approximately three years).

Levitan and Mangum (1967) are diametrically opposed to accepting the present administrative machinery. They advocate a "unified manpower agency" in which all federal support for manpower programs would be consolidated within a single agency. Such an approach

> would force Congress and the Administration to examine the interrelationships and to confront more explicitly the overlaps and gaps...The proposal is...to combine all federal support for manpower programs within one federal agency, dissolving the current individual programs but sustaining their aims and functions more meaningfully in a single integrated program [p. 22]."

Manpower Policy

The lack of an effective manpower policy is widely recognized (Mangum, 1967a; Robson, 1967; Somers, 1968; Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967; Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968). It is therefore recommended that goals, targets, and priorities be clearly expressed (1) to provide direction for establishing a consistent manpower policy, and (2) to develop the criteria needed for testing program effectiveness. At present no clear expression of policy exists, nor is effective evaluation the rule in existing programs (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968).

Funding

The Level of Funding

Many of the problems which result in inefficient operations arise from insufficient financial support. The most gross estimate cites that only 10 percent of persons in need of services are being served. What this really means is that less than 10 percent are enrolled. Even if program operations achieved optimal efficiency and coordination, the efforts of all the programs combined would still constitute only a modest effort. Thus, it is generally recognized that resources should be expanded or, if the national manpower effort must continue to operate on what is essentially an experimental and demonstration basis, expectations for efficiency must be scaled down accordingly. (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968; Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967; Mangum, 1967a).

Duration of Funding

Planning on a one-year basis involves great difficulty, especially if goals are long-range. The uncertainties which accompany one-year funding produce problems throughout the training program area. Programs originating under EOA bear the brunt since they are the most controversial and most in need of Congressional support but least certain of it. A more generous time period is the essential change which could facilitate operations at virtually every level--including federal, state, and community but especially the latter (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968; Robson, 1967).

Funding Procedures

Program funding is intricate and cumbersome at best, requiring tremendous time and energy. Most pertinent is the need for reducing the steps involved and the time for processing. Simplification of procedures can come from existing administrative structure and does not require new capability (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968; Levitan & Mangum, 1967).

Cross Funding

Resources are wasted in many areas because programs are operated on isolated bases when their efficacy could be enhanced through joint operations. An example of such joint operations, or cross-funding, is CEP which brings together funds from different sources for concentrated use. Unfortunately, cross-funding is tremendously difficult. CEP has triumphed only by virtue of the expertise provided by the Manpower Representatives who perform the intricate negotiations and maneuvers which are required. Nevertheless, cross-funding can be made operative within the existing administrative structure and should be utilized to the extent possible (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968; Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967).

Funding for MDTA Multi-Skill Centers

Course-by-course approval is required for MDTA skill centers in spite of the fact that they were established expressly for the purpose of continuous operation. This "fractured funding" requires tremendous fiscal manipulations. It particularly affects those programs which embody unsuccessful or outmoded programs because of the administrative difficulties involved in their discontinuance. An annualized program and budget are recommended; and since funding methods are by administrative order only, this change could be effected within the Labor-HEW Coordinating Committee (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968).

Flexible Utilization of Funds

A "release from rigidity" is essential for a dynamic program, and flexibility in fund utilization would provide this release. Greenleigh analysts found administrators who would have been content with "even a little bit of flexibility." Since flexibility is thought to be the key to effective training programs, it is recommended that up to 10 percent of the allocation be reserved for use by the prime sponsor in those programs funded on a comprehensive basis (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968).

Regional Boundaries

The variations in regional boundaries and in the different locations of regional offices complicate program coordination and administration. The diversity in geographic areas may especially interfere with attempts at integrated regional planning. It is therefore recommended that uniform cities for regional headquarters be designated and that there be consistent regional boundaries for related training agencies (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968).

Grants for Planning

The most obvious facts to emerge from the Greenleigh study were the absence of planning and the fragmentation of program efforts at the community level. Without advance planning, it is not surprising that programs do not meet the employment needs of the local population and that no complementary programs exist. A widely encountered question in the study was "Where do they trainees go from here?"

Both immediate and long-range planning will alleviate many of the present problems, particularly in large urban areas. In recognition thereof, Greenleigh analysts recommend that planning grants be made available to state and/or local governments for developing comprehensive manpower plans which will incorporate education and work and training programs with the needed sequential linkages and with related manpower services (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968). Further endorsement for planning grants comes from the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare (Report of the Committee on Labor, 1967).

Equal Opportunity

A persistent criticism of the manpower training programs is that they fail to meet the special needs of minority group members. According to the Greenleigh analysts,..."equal opportunity is so vital in manpower programs that every useful approach and device should be enlisted Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968, p. 22 ."

Staff Training

In recognition of the existing shortage of trained talent for implementing and administering training programs (Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968; Robson, 1967), and in response to the fact that no separate appropriation of funds is available to meet this need, it is recommended that short-term training be established at convenient locations both for immediate and long-range needs.

The Employment Service

Since most training program administrators have little awareness of other programs, the relationship with the Employment Service, which is common to all programs, should be used to advantage. The vast network of approximately 2,400 offices throughout the country is "crucial to the success of the manpower programs," but at present the ES network is not adequately complementing the nation's training efforts (Robson, 1967; Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968; Mangum, 1967a). It is recognized that extensive legislative changes are needed.

Information

> "One of the saddest features of the national manpower training effort is the confusion which enshrouds it. As everyone suspected...there is an incredible lack of information on the training programs [Greenleigh Associates, Part I, 1968, p.40] ."

Program administrators, potential sponsors, and potential trainees all lack information and understanding of the federal training effort--through no fault of their own because the federal manpower training effort is a constantly changing structure which is tremendously complicated. Administrators are unaware of programs outside their jurisdiction and incompletely informed on the requirements and procedures involved in the programs they administer; potential sponsors--those community people who could serve as catalysts in mobilizing federal resources for their locality--are either unaware of the possibilities or too baffled to take advantage of them; in addition, the disadvantaged are unaware of what the community offers, where to go, and how to apply. It is recognized that there should be easy access to program information in every dimension. Therefore, a simplified communication system is recommended which (1) should provide for constant exchange of information within the government; (2) should provide for a constant dependable information flow to the field, i.e., states, local communities, would-be sponsors (including "one-stop" service for applications, plans, and information); (3) should provide for a dependable information flow to potential trainees on the availability of training slots and eligibility requirements.

Reporting and Evaluation

Greenleigh Associates reported that (1) records were maintained by all projects as required by their funding agency but that reporting requirements differed for every agency (thus thwarting interprogram comparisons since the various programs employed different bases, definitions and time periods); (2) convenient retrieval of critical information on enrollee characteristics, progress, and post-training status and the identification of dropouts for analytical purposes were rarely possible; and (3) local administrators, after disposing of their reports at the federal level, received neither feedback from Washington on their programs nor information on a program-wide basis.

Since the PCOM Task Force Report presented its recommendations on reporting requirements, there have been changes in program reporting; but despite the progress made, data reporting systems are inadequate for individual programs and "noncongruent" between programs. Change and improvement however, are within the capability of the existing structure, and the change to "congruent program data" would accommodate to Congressional concern expressed in the Economic Opportunity Act amendments enacted in December 1967.

Section IV. JOB TRAINING FOR THE DISADVANTAGED: INDUSTRIAL EFFORTS

The efforts of the CATP, whose findings and recommendations on federally-assisted training programs for the disadvantaged were reported in the preceding section, were complemented by another federal committee --The Task Force on Occupational Training in Industry. The task force was designated to survey training programs operated by private industry in an effort to determine how the government might assist and promote these programs in order to meet long-term economic and social goals (Task Force, 1968).

Indeed, the quality of present occupational training in industry influences the national effectiveness in meeting the demands of the future (viz., (1) the economic concern of increased demand in occupations which require high levels of training, and (2) the social imperatives wherein maximum use of human resources must be made). Since training within industry comprises the most significant part of the nation's occupational training and since industry is the prime user of work skills, it follows that private industry will have a significant impact in the training area. And, if one witnesses the government-industry cooperation evident in the Federal Apprenticeship program, MDTA-OJT, cooperative work-study programs, etc., it becomes apparent that private industry has not only the potential but also the willingness to play a significant role in skill development for the nation's workforce. Therefore, government assessment of what industry's role should be and how federal assistance policies can be coordinated with educational or other institutional training is both pertinent and necessary.

The future depends on closing the gap between the manpower needs of industry and the skills of the work force -- a gap which will continue in the absence of remedial efforts. The social order demands that the best use be made of human resources; and occupational training in the United States will be a critical factor in meeting both the economic demand for highly skilled workers and the social demand for preparing the disadvantaged.

Task Force Conclusions

The Task Force on Occupational Training in Industry reported that, while training and educational efforts provided by business and industry have equipped much of the work force with the necessary skills, training and related services are still needed by disadvantaged persons, by young people who must bridge the gap between school and work, for manpower needs in certain occupations, and for upgrading employees (partly to open up entry level jobs but also to meet skill shortages and to provide opportunities).

While the report and focus of the task force is admittedly on industrial training in a general or macroscopic sense, its focus also extends to (1) assuring equal training and employment opportunities for certain population groups (including hard-core unemployed, rural migrants, older workers, handicapped, and new labor force entrants); and (2) orienting supervisors to the special needs of disadvantaged groups.

The task force concluded that the expertise and experience of industry in occupation training should render industry particularly capable of a significant contribution in attaining the nation's training objectives. In addition, the task force looks to industry to provide leadership in improving public education and training so that programs might be made more relevant to industrial manpower needs.

A final conclusion of the task force members was that special financial inducements would be necessary to cover unusual costs of training the disadvantaged.

The following is a summary presentation of some of the more pertinent findings reported by the task force. It should be noted that while members reported data to be sufficient for evaluative purposes, they asserted that a truly adequate evaluation would require more data.

Training Needs

Assessment of the nation's current training effort indicates two central needs: (1) jobless and underemployed individuals need to obtain meaningful and rewarding employment; and (2) employers' requirements for workers need to be met. Training in industry is a key factor to meeting national goals since specific work preparation usually occurs in the place of employment; and cultural and environmental influence in the form of growing public concern with disadvantaged employment programs will likely affect the nature of industrial training programs.

Status of Training in American Industry

Since current and comprehensive data were absent, the report by the task force was based primarily on surveys conducted by the Department of Labor within the past five years.

Forms of Training: Formal vs. Informal

"Formal methods," a category which is characterized primarily by classroom instruction, play a limited role in training workers who have no college education. The 1962 DOL report indicated that only 1 of every 5 establishments provided formal industrial training programs and that the probability of formal training programs varied directly with the size of the firm. The 1963 DOL survey indicated that only 30% of the respondents learned their current jobs through formal training methods (which was narrowly defined as training provided by schools, including company schools; by apprenticeship programs; and by Armed Forces programs).

For the majority of workers, learning job skills appears to be an informal, casual process which occurs mainly within the work environment.

The 1963 DOL study reported that most adult workers had "just picked up" the skills or had developed them through informal means and experiences. The area of informal occupational training is mysterious and the processes involved are elusive. A study of 20 manufacturing plants provided insight with the finding that in-plant training for blue-collar workers was mainly "a process of informal training on the job in the process of production." The authors of the study emphasized that the critical element was the unstructured nature of the process.

Forms of Training in Specific Industries and Occupations

Most of the formal occupational training in the private sector is accounted for by those industries employing large proportions of blue-collar workers. According to the 1962 DOL survey, manufacturing was in first place and transportation, communications and public utilities shared second place.

The 1963 DOL survey indicated that workers at the top of the job ladder most often had experienced formal training. Thus, professional and technical personnel placed first, clerical workers placed second, and craftsmen and kindred placed third.

Training Costs

The scarcity of data on employer expenditures for training is one of the most significant shortcomings in industrial training information. A 1966 pretest of a proposed DOL survey of manufacturing industry expenditures for formal training revealed that incomplete records made a survey infeasible.

Recent Trends

Since the level of occupational training in industry is responsive to economic and job market factors, prime motivators for initiating company training courses will be (1) shortages of trained people in specific occupations, e.g., skilled craft, and (2) the labor shortage situation which emerged during the past three years.

Future

The same factors that led to greater industrial involvement in training in recent years will influence the training picture in the future. Informal and casual training arrangements will likely become more and more inadequate. Industry's role as the major supplier of work skills will probably stay the same.

Task Force Recommendations

(1) A National Training Act should be passed to declare a federal commitment for attaining the training levels required to meet the economic, social, and security needs of the nation and to establish a National Training Council. It is proposed that the Council consist of representatives from business, industry, labor, and education and training, in addition to other representatives. The Council should recommend

policies, programs, and legislation to fill significant gaps and should report its recommendations to the President annually.

(2) Federal reimbursement for training expenses should be made available in order to overcome economic barriers to training and to attend with sufficient concern certain areas of national interest. Specific activity in these areas would include (a) aiding organizations in providing both basic and remedial training for disadvantaged, hard-core unemployed and underemployed population groups plus handicapped persons and new entrants into the labor force; (b) providing for training or orientation of supervisory personnel for dealing with special problems of disadvantaged workers; (c) helping smaller firms to provide training for their employees.

(3) First priority should be given to assisting employers who agree to hire and train disadvantaged adults and unskilled youth. Ideally, employers would receive reimbursement for counseling, prevocational basic education, medical care, transportation; supervisory and coworker orientation; and child care centers.

It is further recognized that while private industry has the capability to contribute in a most significant way to meeting national training needs, certain deterrents exist with regard to the disadvantaged. These include greater risks and difficulties plus the additional services required for hiring and acclimating serious disadvantaged persons for successful employment. Accordingly, OJT and other similar programs should not be reduced for the purpose of giving first priority to special training programs for the disadvantaged but additional funds should be appropriated for establishing training for the disadvantaged.

(4) Upgrade training programs should be established and assisted by the Government. A supplemental aim should be to provide financial support to employers for conducting job redesign and job rearrangement analyses for creating career ladders where none exist.

(5) Financial assistance should be made available to schools and employers for expanding cooperative work-education programs. These programs have been successful in placement records and employment stability and also job satisfaction of graduates. Unfortunately, the total number of participants is still small.

(6) Assistance for promotion of cooperative work-education programs should also extend to the adult hard-core unemployed and disadvantaged.

(7) A comprehensive program of technical assistance to employers should be provided. This would consist of aid in establishing and improving training programs and also promotional activities for the improvement of occupational training in private industry. Use should be made of the expertise accumulated by such organizations as education, training, employer associations, unions, and professional societies. Services should include assistance in the problems of providing work preparation to the disadvantaged and hard-core unemployed.

(8) Minority group members should be encouraged to take advantage of opportunities for apprenticeship training. Apprenticeship training itself should be expanded.

(9) Skill centers which are under the operation of the Government, public and private schools, and employers and unions should be assessed to determine their effectiveness and to establish the need for additional centers in particular geographic areas.

(10) A review is needed of the legal and administrative requirements and practices which serve as barriers to training in industry. Such a review would include occupational licensing regulations, inflexible practices of employers, and stringent criteria for security clearances. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 should be reviewed to determine how it can be more effectively used in assuring equal opportunities for all persons.

(11) A significant research effort should be made to fill the tremendous gaps on nature, extent, cost, and quality of occupational training in private industry.

The Industrial Picture: Findings and Recommendations

While the Task Force used a macroscopic prespective in assessing the achievements of occupational training in industry, a narrower approach was taken by E. F. Shelley Associates (1968) in an investigation concerned solely with private industry activity in hiring and training minority group members. The two-phase nationwide study initiated by the Urban Coalition sought to establish which programs are effective, what problems are being encountered, and what are the determinants of success. Through the use of a comprehensive questionnaire and field visits, Shelley analysts sought to obtain information on practices in 273 companies, each employing over 10,000 workers, headquartered in one of 15 major cities, and representing one of 29 major industrial classifications. An analysis based on the responses of 224 of the 273 companies resulted in the following findings and recommendations.

Factors Affecting Corporate Commitment

Corporate Motivation

The major factors affecting the extent of coporate involvement are (1) a tight labor market; (2) pressures from such sources as the government, the National Alliance of Businessmen (NAB), and various community agencies; and (3) the social unrest generated by the deprived urban minority. It is recommended that the federal government adopt a policy of full employment, even to the extent of playing the role of "employer of last resort," to protect the gains currently being won by minority groups.

Corporate Inhibitors

The factors most significant in inhibiting corporate activity are economics, location, and corporate structure. Thus weak involvement is shown by (1) company divisions operating on thin profit margin, (2) companies operating either in the South or in non-central city locations, and (3) decentralized companies. Since the primary expansion of employment opportunities is occurring outside the city, it is recommended that national and local groups pressure firms outside central city locations --especially those located in the suburbs --to share the load of training either by establishing ghetto feeder plants or by more effective provision of transportation to outlying areas.

Top Level Corporate Commitment

Since it is observed that high level commitment and continued follow-up are crucial to effective program operation, it is recommended that top level corporate officials maintain vital involvement in the NAB, local coalitions, and similar volunteer groups to insure sustained interest. It is further recommended that overall program responsibility be delegated to a high level person.

Union Involvement

Labor union involvement has been limited except where company plans included changes in training procedures. In such cases, unions have participated in planning, especially in lengthening probation periods. It is recommended that unions be involved in program planning and implementation where the flexibility of labor contract provisions permits. In cases of inflexibility, training should be structured through the establishment of ghetto plants, vestibule training centers or separate non-profit corporations.

Co-Worker Relationships

While the current degree of program activity has not been sufficiently large to arouse white employee hostility, trouble is anticipated if qualified white workers are denied employment or if the number of unskilled black workers increases. Since no effective short-range method exists for combatting the current industrial climate of racial hostility both among blacks and among low income whites, it is recommended that corporate awareness be developed. Specifically, companies should prepare for contingencies by the effective use of communications channels and by structuring programs to include built-in advancement opportunities.

Use of Federal Resources

The continued use of Department of Labor funding is strongly recommended, particularly since government funding is recognized as a necessary incentive to widespread industry activity.

Program Costs

Since program costs are based on various accounting inputs and are not productive of effective evaluation, it is recommended that the Department of Labor and the NAB formulate standardized program inputs and outputs to facilitate both internal evaluation of industry training and external comparison of training methods.

Program Components

Recruitment

State Employment Services constitute the primary recruitment vehicle for minority employment. A second effective recruitment technique, outreach into the ghetto, has nevertheless suffered from a lack of credibility among ghetto residents. It is recognized that more effective outreach is required and it is recommended that Employment Service responsibility to the applicant --as well as to the employer -- be accelerated.

Screening

Screening standards have been widely revised and the primary determinant for hiring now consists of a personal interview and subjective assessment of the recruit's attitude. Testing is presently being used more for placement than for hiring. Other criteria, such as health and medical standards, have not been changed and serve to screen out many applicants. Since subjective screening has been used to screen out minority group applicants in the past, it is recommended that companies require clearer guidelines and more training for interviewing personnel. Validation of the various screening devices dictates that a more adequate internal follow-up on hires be implemented. In addition, it is recommended that the Employment Service develop a system of medical referral treatment and follow-up so that relatively minor medical problems may be treated.

Training

In general, the more highly structured the training program, the more successful it appears to be. Thus the inclusion of work and skills orientation, counseling, and various other supportive services results in a more effective program. Therefore, it is recommended that program structure be emphasized more and that number of hires be emphasized less. Local technical assistance mechanisms might be used to apprise management of effective techniques. Also, consortium arrangements could be used in areas where a group of firms requires similar skills.

Remedial Education

Although most firms provide remedial education, the type and intensity of remedial training are considerably varied. It is agreed, however, that effective remedial programs (1) must appear realistic to the trainee in terms of his background and aspirations and (2) must be linked with the promise of an adequate job. Since it appears that the government is expending extraneous effort on remedial education, it is recommended that the Labor Department review programs to insure that they are related to job opportunities and upgrading.

Supportive Services

With the exception of referral counseling, company provision of supportive services uniquely targeted to minority workers is not pervasive. Most common among company services are medical aid and transportation. Since, on the one hand, companies cannot afford to become too enmeshed in the social service field and since, on the other hand, there is a distinct need for such services, it is recommended that greater use be made of available community resources.

Company Staff Training

Special training for minority group employees has occasionally met with co-worker resistance due to a misunderstanding by co-workers of corporate aims. Where the possibility of misunderstanding exists, co-workers should be apprised of the company's policy and program. Where cooperation between first-line management and union leadership is a significant concern, the company should instruct this level regarding company aims and should orient it to minority group behavior. Such psychological techniques as T-groups and role playing have not demonstrated unequivocal effectiveness in exposing racial prejudice and should be subjected to further research.

Upgrading

Current upgrading activity is small. Unfortunately, increasing skill shortages and growing job sophistication place a premium on upgrading the low skilled. It is therefore recommended that business and coalition groups concentrate on analyzing promising upgrading techniques and developing private industry upgrading programs. Although minority groups comprise the largest percentage of low skilled workers and would profit most from upgrading efforts, the current seniority structure probably precludes extensive upgrading efforts aimed largely at blacks and other minorities.

Section V. SURVEY OF EXISTING COOPERATIVE JOB-ORIENTED EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Introduction

Lack of education is one important reason why some individuals are unemployed and/or have extremely low incomes. Many of the so-called disadvantaged have sought a way out of their plight through the avenue of employment, but being unable to read or write they have found it impossible to complete a job application, pass a placement test, or profit from written instructions connected with performance of a job. Those fortunate enough to be employed have often had difficulty in communicating with their supervisors.

One way of meeting the problems with which the disadvantaged confront potential employers would be to restructure certain jobs to allow for the shortcomings of the worker. Undoubtedly some restructuring is necessary, but if a worker is merely trained to perform a certain narrow task now, the inevitability of his joining the ranks of the unemployed is just postponed. If, along with his job training, the worker is not given the basic education in communications skills, applied arithmetic, etc., that will allow him to adapt to change, then when technological advances make his job obsolete he may not be able to make the adjustment that would allow him to remain employed.

Many of the disadvantaged have had an opportunity to acquire an education in the public schools but have turned it down by dropping out as soon as possible because the programs offered did not seem to fit their needs. Even vocational education in high school may not interest a student if he has no opportunity while in school to put his training to use in a job situation.

On the other hand, work-study programs sponsored by private industry may be much more appealing to a disadvantaged individual because he is enabled to earn wages for performing useful work while he learns, thus enhancing his image of himself as a worthwhile person. Furthermore, the basic education courses arranged by industry for its workers may be viewed much more positively by the disadvantaged than are traditional school courses if the industry-sponsored classes truly begin at the individual's level of understanding and teach him concepts that are related to his own everyday experiences.

The current dropout rate is evidence that the schools are not successfully meeting the educational needs of all segments of the nation's school-age population. College preparatory curricula have often taken precedence over the types of basic education and vocational training that are needed by the disadvantaged. The latter have elected to terminate their schooling rather than endure the humiliation of competing with their more fortunate classmates in classes which for them have little meaning. In attempting to meet the special needs of the disadvantaged the schools could benefit greatly from some exposure to the thinking of businessmen whose very existence depends on the successful operation of a job training program. As the Research and Policy Committee of the Committee for Economic Development (1965) has pointed out:

> In the improvement of vocational education businesses have a necessary part to play. They are a source of information about current and prospective job requirements and about which aspects of worker preparation are best done in the school or on the job. The cooperation of business is indispensable to programs for work experience during the education period and job placement afterwards. In many cases, businesses can help to make up-to-date equipment and experts available to the schools. Business firms have had a wide experience in job-oriented training, and should participate heavily in the development of methods that will be economical and effective. Businesses should perform these functions not only because they have an interest in the supply of labor but also because they have a unique ability to do something important for their communities (p.26).

In setting up work-study programs designed to make better informed and more productive workers of its disadvantaged employees, private industry could also benefit from contact with the schools. While they have experienced some failures in dealing with the disadvantaged, the schools still employ a good number of those who know most about how humans learn. The business community could employ the schools' teachers either to instruct industry-sponsored courses in communications skills, human relations and applied arithmetic or to serve as resource persons for the industry's own teachers. Classrooms and instructional materials already utilized by the schools might be shared with industry at less expense than might be incurred if industry undertook to provide its own facilities. In some cases companies might find that utilizing some existing school courses in adult education, remedial reading or vocational training would obviate the need for the companies to set up their own courses in these areas.

In the past educators employed by the schools have been concerned almost solely with academic affairs, while training directors in industry have been primarily concerned with specific job training. The fact that there has been little contact between the schools and the business community has sometimes led to wasteful duplication of efforts in some areas of training and to costly neglect in other areas. It is high time that the two communities began to pool their resources in order to provide integrated programs of on-the-job training and practical education for the disadvantaged. This is the type of effort which this study is designed to promote. By compiling an extensive collection of information on the existing cooperative programs and placing this report in the hands of leaders of industry and the schools in a given locality, the initiation of further cooperative efforts may be stimulated.

Identification of Programs

In order to locate programs in which private industry and the schools were cooperating to provide job-oriented education for the disadvantaged, current journals and newspapers were searched for references to such programs, and a preliminary mail survey of businesses and schools throughout the country was undertaken. Since most of the known programs involved large companies, Fortune's list of the nation's 750 largest corporations provided one source of company names for a proposed mailing. However, not all large companies are extensively involved in training activities, so membership by one or more company personnel in the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) was proposed as an indication of a professional interest in training, and thus as a criterion for eliminating some of Fortune's 750 from consideration for the purposes of the study. Letters were finally mailed to training directors in the headquarters of the 437 largest U.S. corporations having one or more members of ASTD. These company personnel were asked to send descriptions of any program which was being (or had been) carried on by one of the company's divisions, regardless of the location of the division.

The Director of the Ohio Center for Vocational-Technical Education in Columbus suggested that a representative sampling of school personnel who could identify industry-school cooperative programs might be obtained by using the Center's mailing list of head state supervisors of vocational-technical areas in the 50 states, directors of vocational education in cities of 50,000 or more, and the directors of vocational-technical research coordinating units in the 45 states having such a unit. Seven hundred eighty-five individuals were included in the listing which resulted and letters were mailed to each of them requesting information on any cooperative programs which they knew about within their own states.

The preliminary survey of businesses and schools, which was designed to identify cooperative efforts to provide job-training and education for the disadvantaged, was conducted in August, 1968. By October approximately one-third of the companies and one-fourth of the schools surveyed had responded. In all, replies were received from school or company representatives, or both, in 45 states. Unfortunately, a large number of the individuals replying had nothing to report, and others identified programs that did not meet our criteria, i.e., they mentioned traditional work-study programs in which companies were providing part-time employment for students but nothing more. There was no evidence of any special concern for further development of the student beyond training him to perform a specific task.

At length 64 programs, located in 22 states, were identified in which schools and companies were actively involved in providing job-oriented education for the disadvantaged. Undoubtedly there are other such programs in the country which were not revealed by our preliminary survey, but such a wide variety of approaches to the education and training of the disadvantaged is represented in our sample that these 64 programs appear to be exemplary of any others which may exist.

School and Company Questionnaires

Respondents to the preliminary survey identified a school contact and a company contact for each cooperative program. Thus it was possible to send separate questionnaires to two representatives of each program in order to obtain a view of the program from both the company and the school involved.

Project staff members set objectives for both school and company questionnaires and drafted initial versions of these instruments. (Copies of "School Report on a Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Program for the Disadvantaged" and "Company Report on a Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Program for the Disadvantaged" appear in Appendix A). Thereafter, two sets of consultants, one for each questionnaire, were asked to meet with the project staff for a day to review each instrument and make suggestions for revision. A list of consultants appears in Appendix A.

Following the meetings with consultants both school and company questionnaires were extensively revised. The two instruments were made as similar as possible with respect to general information on a program so that a reasonably accurate picture of the program could be obtained even if only one questionnaire was returned. Questions differed primarily in those sections of the questionnaires dealing with specific details of operation of the program in company or school.

Tryout of each instrument was achieved by sending it to representatives of two very different cooperative programs. Mailing of company and school questionnaires to representatives of each of the 64 exemplary cooperative programs took place in late September and early October.

Survey Results

Three weeks after the questionnaires were mailed a follow-up letter was sent to non-respondents, and after seven weeks telephone follow-up was used. Eighty-two per cent of all questionnaires were completed and returned. Data is available on 95% of the programs surveyed, however, since basic program information can be obtained from a single questionnaire, and questionnaires were completed and returned by at least one representative (i.e., the company or the school) of 95% of the programs. Information gathered during field visits is also available for 10 programs located in Philadelphia, New York, and Detroit.

As had been anticipated, most training programs for the disadvantaged are located in the nation's largest cities (see Table 3). Fifty per cent of the exemplary programs surveyed are conducted in cities with populations of 500,000 or more, and only seven per cent of these programs take place in towns of 50,000 or fewer inhabitants.

Program Description

Age of disadvantaged participants was not used as a limiting factor for selection of programs to be included in this survey. Therefore, the target population for a number of the programs includes adults (Appendix D). Approximately 44% of the programs surveyed are designed to aid disadvantaged in-school youth (including those identified as potential dropouts), but the remaining programs are aimed at other groups which are composed primarily of adults. Utilizing the classification terminology of the sponsoring schools and companies, these groups include school dropouts, the hard-core unemployed, regular company employees, prospective employees (not necessarily dropouts or hard-core unemployed), and school counselors.

Extent of involvement on the part of industry or school was not employed as a criterion for inclusion, either. Thus the range of involvement on the part of industry extends from donation of surplus or outdated company equipment to the school for use in skills training classes, through the provision of employment and on-the-job training, to maintenance by the company of a full-time staff in the school to provide job-related counseling and placement for students and to serve as curriculum consultants to the school staff. School involvement in the programs extends from provision of a single vocational or basic education instructor for a company-sponsored course to provision of a staff of administrators, teachers, counselors, and consultants for a large work experience-education program.

Program Organization

Private industry has apparently taken the initiative in setting up cooperative job-oriented education programs. Half the respondents in this study report that the idea for their program originated with private industry. About one-fourth of the programs were initiated by schools, and 20% were set up by committees that included both industry and school representatives. The remaining cooperative ventures were suggested by civic groups such as the Urban League and the New Detroit Committee.

TABLE 3

List of Job-Oriented Education Programs for the Disadvantaged Sponsored Jointly by Private Industry and the Schools

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
1. Chrysler Corp. Northwestern H. S. Detroit, Michigan	Automobile manufacturing	Auto Mechanic Service Station Attendant Secretary (Data Processing) (Business for school use)	Under 18	School adoption program involving curriculum planning, job training, placement of graduates, etc.
2. Michigan Bell Telephone Co. Northern Senior H. S. Detroit, Michigan	Installation and maintenance of telephone service	Lineman (Computer Technology)	Under 18 18-25	Six weeks training class to qualify graduating seniors from this inner-city school for telephone company jobs.
3. J. I. Case Co. Unified School District Number 1 of Racine Racine, Wisconsin	Manufacture of agricultural equipment	(Basic Machine Skills) (Office and Clerical Skills)	Under 18	School-work experience program for potential school dropouts undertaken to emphasize the importance of formal education and the need to graduate from high school in relation to securing and holding employment.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
4. Honeywell Inc. Emily Griffith Opportunity School Denver, Colorado	Manufacture and design of scientific instrumentation systems.	Cable Harness Maker Assembler, Circuit Board; Mechanical	18-25	Six to ten weeks training in one of three skills for hard-core unemployed. Basic education is provided by the school.
5. Prudential Insurance Co. of America Education Center for Youth Newark, New Jersey	Insurance	Clerical Trainee	Under 18 18-21	A school for dropouts (out of school six months or more) to help them earn regular high school diplomas. Work Study Program with 100 jobs for students guaranteed by seven local businesses, including Prudential. Students work one week, attend school the next.
6. *				
7. Ohio Bell North Evening H. S. Cleveland, Ohio	Communications	(Remedial Education)	18-25	Five week pre-employment remedial education program for prospective employees. Emphasis on basic vocabulary, remedial reading and mathematics, with vocational counseling and basic science included.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
8. Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co. Akron Public Schools Akron, Ohio	Rubber manufacturing	(Pre-apprentice Training)	18-25	Pre-apprentice training for Negroes. Includes math; science, communicative skills; and vocational training in welding, electricity, machine shop, sheet metal and drafting. Conducted for 20 students in training 35 hours per week for 25 weeks.
9. Mosler Safe Co. Hamilton City School System's, Miami Valley Institute of Technology Hamilton, Ohio	Security systems (Safes)	(Industrial and Manufacturing Education)	18-25	"Rewards Through Education and Challenge" (REACH) program provides training to prepare recent high school graduates for industrial employment. Trainee allowances provided by employer.
10. General Foods Corp. Manpower Development Training Center (White Plains Adult Education System) White Plains, N. Y.	Food manufacturing	Stenographic Trainee (Basic Education)	18-25	12-24 weeks basic education and stenographic training for secretarial candidates for economically and/or socially deprived areas. General Foods finances the program and provides trainee allowances.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
11. Creative Playthings New Jersey State Department of Education Trenton, New Jersey	Toy manufacturing	(Industrial and Business Skills)	Under 18	Employer is one of a group of companies which furnishes equipment and materials for three mobile education units which travel to schools across the state offering instruction to migrant farm workers and their families. In some cases trainees manufacture products for which the employer pays.
12. *				
13. Fourth National Bank & Trust Co. Wichita Central Vocational School Wichita, Kansas	Banking	(Office Skills, Bank)	18-25	Eight week course for prospective minority group employees in bank office skills training and bank operations orientation. All Wichita banks provide financial support; school conducts the training.
14. North American Rockwell Downey Unified School District Downey, California	Building spacecraft	(Plastics Fabrication) (Structures Assembly)	Under 18	Company provides consultants and equipment for a school-operated vocational education program in plastic fabrication and structures assembly.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
15. Chesapeake and Potomac Telephone Co. of Maryland Baltimore City Public Schools Baltimore, Maryland	Communication	PBX Operator Trainee Teletype Operator Trainee IBM Keypunch Operator Trainee Clerical Trainee	Under 18	Work experience program for 12th grade students. Company employs students in clerical positions.
16. Jeff-Vander-Lu Construction Co. Soldan High School St. Louis, Missouri	Construction	Laborer, Carpentry	Under 18	Under-achievers in Negro high school given construction jobs renovating old houses. Board of Education paid for labor, construction firm provided training.
17. Goldsmith's Department Store Carver High School Memphis, Tennessee	Retail merchandising	(Distributive Education)	18-40	Distributive education and counseling program for prospective employees conducted by school personnel on company premises.
18. Kaiser Industries Alameda Unified School District Alameda, California	Steel production	Clerical Trainee, General Garage Attendant Librarian Aide	Under 18 18-25	Work experience program for minority youth.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
19. Lowenbaum Manufacturing Co. Cape Girardeau Vocational-Technical School Cape Girardeau, Missouri	Apparel manufacturing	Industrial Sewing Machine Operator	18-40	60-hour course in industrial sewing machine operation, conducted at the school for females with no skills. Company provided the instructor.
20. Rotary Club of Kansas City Kansas City, Missouri, Public Schools Kansas City, Missouri		(Work Orientation)	Under 18 18-21	Work experience and education (Double E) program for school dropouts capable of doing ordinary classwork and holding a job. Thirty companies offer employment to Double E participants. Schools offer course work leading to high school diploma.
21. *				
22. Berg, Fairchild, Gould, Inc. Rockford Public H. S. Rockford, Illinois	Psychological Consulting Firm	(Vocational Counseling)	Under 18 18-40	Program to provide aptitude testing and vocational guidance for high school boys (seniors) and dropouts.

Identifying Characterisitcs	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
23. Lukens Steel Co. Coatesville Area School District Coatesville, Pennsylvania	Manufacture of steel plate	Laborer	18-25	Special Training and Education Program (STEP) providing 120 working days of basic education and job training for the hard-core unemployed. School provides an hour a day of basic education, company employs and trains participants on the job for eight hours a day.
24. First Pennsylvania Bank School District of Philadelphia Philadelphia, Pennsylvania		EDP Machine Operator Clerk, General Credit Trainee Stock Certificate Proof Reader	Under 18	Business Experience - Education Program (BEEP) providing 42 weeks of clerical work experience at the bank, in addition to regular schooling, for junior and senior boys in inner-city schools with high dropout rates.
25. Southwestern Public Service Co. Amarillo Public Schools Amarillo, Texas	Food service (selection, use, care of commercial kitchen equipment)	(Food Service)	Under 18	Company provides consultants and equipment for a school-operated course in commercial food service and restaurant operation.
26. *				
27. *				

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
28. Royal Typweriter Hartford Connecticut Public Schools, Adult Bureau Hartford, Connecticut	Typewriters	(Remedial Education)	25-40	Basic course in English conducted by school personnel for Spanish-speaking company employees. Course taught on company premises.
29. Chadbourn-Gotham, Inc. Hall County Board of Education Gainesville, Georgia	Hosiery manufacturing	(Dyeboarding) (Toe sewing)	18-25	Four weeks of employability training for hard-core unemployed conducted for this hosiery manufacturer by local school.
30. R. H. Macy, Inc. Hiram W. Johnson Senior H. S. Sacramento, California	Retail merchandising	Clerk	Under 18	Macy's provides work experience for high school students interested in merchandising.
31. F. L. Smithe Machine Co. Altoona High School Duncansville, Pennsylvania	Envelope-making machinery	(Vocational Training, Machinery)	18-25	Classroom instruction in blue-print reading, machining theory, and care and use of precision instruments conducted by school and on-the-job training conducted by company for prospective company employees.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
32. A & B Auto Electric Milby Senior High Houston, Texas	Automobile services	Auto Mechanic	18-25	Company provides on-the-job training in rebuilding starters and generators to potential school drop-outs.
33. Smith, Kline & French Laboratory School District of Philadelphia Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	Research, development, manufacture and marketing of pharmaceuticals	(Purchasing) (Sales Services) (Printing) Draftsman (Visual Communications) Financial Clerk (Inspection Control) (Record Management) Lab Helper Marketing Research Clerk Systems Clerk Mail and Stockroom Clerk Planning and Scheduling Clerk Lab Technician Multilith Operator	Under 18	Company provides meaningful jobs in various areas of the company for ghetto high school students.
34. Smith, Kline & French Laboratory Philadelphia Board of Education Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	Research, development, manufacture and marketing of pharmaceuticals	(Remedial Education)	25-40	Company provides basic math and English courses for employees who lack academic skills. The purpose of the program is to enhance the promotability of low-level employees and thus facilitate upgrading. School personnel teach the courses on company premises.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
35. Shell Oil Co. Louis D. Brandeis High School New York, New York	Automobile services	Service Station Attendant Auto Mechanic Salesman	18-25	Company furnishes school with curriculum consultants and materials in order to train students to work in and/or operate service stations.
36. Phoenix Mutual Life Insurance Co. Hartford Public High School Hartford, Connecticut	Insurance	(Work Orientation)	Under 18	Visitation program for potential high school dropouts. Students are invited for lunch (eight or fewer at a time) with three Phoenix employees. Employees tell about their jobs and how high school subjects helped them. Then the students are taken into the working area and are told what work is being done.
37. Phoenix Mutual Life Insurance Co. Hartford Public High School Hartford, Connecticut	Insurance	Clerk	Under 18	For slow learners who appear to be potential school dropouts, Phoenix breaks simple clerical jobs into parts and teaches the students one part at a time until they master the whole job. Students spend four hours per day in school and three and one-fourth on the job.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
38. Leaf Brands Division, W. R. Grace Chicago Board of Education Chicago, Illinois	Candy making	(Remedial and Basic Education)	25-40	Company sponsors three types of educational opportunities for its employees: a) English as a second language in preparation for citizenship, b) basic education for illiterates, c) academic work leading to eighth grade graduation.
39. Bank of the Commonwealth Detroit School System Detroit, Michigan	Banking	(Career Counseling)	Under 18	Job Fair Program sponsored by many Detroit firms. Career counseling was offered to recent high school graduates. Then employers interviewed, tested, and selected future employees from among the Job Fair participants.
40. Eastman Kodak Rochester City School District Rochester, New York	Manfacture of photographic equipment	(Career Counseling)	Under 18	The company provides consultants and audiovisual equipment to help implement a school career guidance project.
41. Eastman Kodak Rochester City School District Rochester, New York	Manfacture of photographic equipment	(Work-Study)	Under 18	Work experience and education program for potential school dropouts.

Identifying Characteristics	Principle Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
42. Carnation Co. Mid-City Occupational Center Los Angeles, California	Dairy	(Dairy Processing)	18-25	Twenty three-hour classroom sessions in dairy processing techniques are taught in the adult basic education facility for prospective dairy employees by personnel from the dairying industry. Twenty dairies cooperate in sponsoring the program.
43. International Business Machines Centennial High School Compton, California	Manufacture computers	Programmer Trainee	Under 18	Summer employment in data processing following high school graduation. Purpose is to encourage qualified minority group students to consider careers in data processing. School counselors recommended students for the program.
44. Houdaille-Duval-Wright Co. Florida Junior College Jacksonville, Florida	Concrete construction products	(Management Training)	NA**	Company sponsors a school-operated program to improve supervisory techniques and leadership abilities among plant leadmen (primarily non-whites).
45. Detroit Edison Co. Wayne State University Detroit, Michigan	Electric utility	(Skills Training and Work Orientation)	25-40	Company-sponsored program of job training and general orientation training designed to enhance the employability of a group of hard-core unemployed Negro males. Also sensitivity training for supervisors.

	Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
46.	Orange County Equal Opportunity Employers' Association Orange County Schools Santa Anna, California		(Sensitivity Orientation for Counselors)	25-40	Vocational Guidance Institute sponsored by Employers' Association. 30 school counselors were trained to deal with minority students. The three-week program emphasized promoting hard-core awareness of available job opportunities.
47.	International Business Machines Los Angeles City Schools Los Angeles, California	Manufacture of computers	(Computer Programming)	Under 18	A 10-week company-sponsored computer programming course for interested high school students to stimulate interest in further education and in data processing.
48.	The Trane Co. Western Wisconsin Technical Institute La Crosse, Wisconsin	Manfacture of air-conditioning and refrigeration equipment	Air Conditioning and Refrigeration Technician Welder Auto mechanic	N.A.	Trane donates equipment to the school, provides curriculum consultants and some teacher training, furnishes teachers for some evening courses, and sends some employees to school for re-training. Vocational School helps train their employees, presents courses under MDTA, ARA, etc.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
49. State Farm Insurance Co. Bloomington Public School Bloomington, Illinois	Insurance	File Clerk General Clerk	18-40	Local firms financed a school-operated program of education and on-the-job training for Negroes with no skills.
50. MacGregor/ Brunswick Courter Technical School Cincinnati, Ohio	Manufacture of golf and other sporting equipment	Stenographic Trainee	Under 18	Work experience program for students with stenographic skills. Company hires girls for 10 weeks, then they attend school for 10 weeks.
51. Aetna Life and Casualty Weaver High School Hartford, Connecticut	Insurance	Multigraph Operator Mail Clerk Material Handler File Clerk	Under 18	Clerical work experience program for high school students.
52. Ford Motor Co. McNamara Skill Center Detroit, Michigan	Automotive manufacturing	Messenger Clerk Typist Stock Handler Production Worker Production Welder	18-40	Project 250 to employ and train 250 hard-core unemployed. Company provides job training and extensive counseling services. School provides remedial education.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
53. Quad-City Employment Council Black Hawk College Moline, Illinois		(Sensitivity Orientation for Counselors)	N.A.	Summer workshop for school counselors to acquaint them with the problems of disadvantaged individuals and the practices of industry.
54. John Deere and Co. Black Hawk College Moline, Illinois	Manufacture of farm implements	(College Readiness Program)	Under 18 18-25	College Readiness Program to prepare disadvantaged minority students for college--either BA or Occupational Curricula. Six weeks program of classes in the mornings, employment in the afternoon. Several local firms were involved.
55. Portland Cement Association Waukegan Township High School Waukegan, Illinois	Cement manufacturing	Cement Mason	18-25	Basic education and pre-apprenticeship training for the cement mason and plastering occupations.
56. Penn Mutual Life Insurance Co. School District of Philadelphia Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	Insurance	Clerical Trainee	Under 18	"Two-Week Look at Business" program designed to motivate high school students to stay in school and to improve their school records. Students spend two weeks during the summer "trying out" various jobs in 16 Philadelphia firms, including Penn Mutual.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
57. Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co. Akron Public School Akron, Ohio	Rubber manufacturing	(Sensitivity Orientation for High School Counselors) (Work Orientation for High School Students)	N.A. Under 18	Summer work experience for high school counselors from Akron inner-city schools. Counselors paid by the firm while they learn what jobs are available for disadvantaged youth and what training the youth need in preparation for the jobs. High school students are also involved. They receive general orientation to industry hiring procedures.
58. Stanford Chamber of Commerce Stanford High School Stanford, Connecticut		(Occupational Information)	Under 18	Chamber of Commerce provides speakers for career conference aimed at high school seniors.
59. Coca Cola Co. Chicago Board of Education Chicago, Illinois	Manufacture of syrups and concentrates	(Basic Education)	25-40	School taught in-plant classes--two-hour session twice weekly--in basic education for company employees.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
60. Weyerhaeuser Co. Tacoma Vocational Technical Institute Tacoma, Washington	Lumber production	Clerk Typist	18-40	A four-week general orientation program preceding clerk-typist training was financed by several local firms, including Weyerhaeuser, and conducted by the school.
61. Carson Pirie Scott and Co. Urban Youth Program-Double E Chicago, Illinois	Retail merchandising	Clerk (Merchandising and Basic Education)	Under 18	"Double E" work experience-education program for out-of-work school dropouts. 12 hours a week are spent in class and 24-32 hours on the job. Carson is one of 50 Chicago firms providing employment for Double E students.
62. Union Carbide Oak Ridge Associated University Oak Ridge, Tennessee	Manfacture of chemicals	Electronics Technician Tool Machine Set-up Operator Welder Maintenance Mechanic Laboratory Aide Draftsman Programmer Inspection and Testing Technician R & D Technician	18-40	Training local disadvantaged persons to qualify them for entry-level employment. Basic education and job training involved.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
63. American Machine and Foundry Co. Richmond Technical Center Richmond, Virginia	Machinery manufacturing	Assembler, Electronic Machinist Painter Sheet Metal Operator Welder Drill Press Operator	18-40	Providing consultants and/or equipment for a school-company operated vocational education program for potential and actual dropouts; also basic education and job training for the hard-core unemployed.
64. General Electric Lamp Division Woodland Job Training Center Cleveland, Ohio	Manufacture of electric lamps	Occupational Trainee	18-21 16-22	G. E. donated a factory to Cleveland Board of Education which is now used by several local firms in conjunction with the Board to provide basic and remedial education, job skill training, and job placement for school dropouts and the hard-core unemployed.
65. Honeywell, Inc. Special School District No. 1 Minneapolis Public Schools Minneapolis, Minnesota	Manufacture of heating and aircraft controls	Assembler	18-40	Four hours per day of remedial education provided by school personnel on company premises for hard-core individuals who are receiving company-conducted on-the-job training for four hours daily.

Identifying Characteristics	Principal Activity of Company	Job Titles (or training areas)	Age Range of Participants	Description of Program
66. Chase Manhattan Bank New York City Public Schools New York, New York	Banking	Clerical Trainee	Under 18	BET Program: Part-time clerical work-experience, counseling, and general orientation training for part-time students from ghetto high schools.

* No information available on the program, due either to early elimination of the program from further consideration, or failure of respondents to return questionnaires.

** Not applicable

Where the idea for a cooperative program originated with the school, the participation of industry was most often secured by vocational supervisors or coordinators who contacted company personnel directors to ascertain their degree of interest in such a program.

The chief factors leading to initiation of cooperative programs were listed as: (1) the need to reduce the school dropout rate; (2) the desire of industry to tap a new source of manpower (the disadvantaged high school student who might otherwise drop out of school and thus never acquire the skills needed for employability); (3) the need to make vocational training more realistic; (4) the need to find solutions to alleviate "the urban crisis"; and where the company instituted an employee upgrading program, (5) the desire to promote the development of present employees in order to enhance their opportunities for advancement.

Half of the programs reported on involve a single company, and that company is more likely to be involved in manufacturing than any other activity (a classification of programs by type of sponsoring company appears in Appendix E). Thirteen per cent of the programs are sponsored by a single industry such as banking, dairying, or data processing. Thirty-seven per cent of the programs involve several industries, again chiefly manufacturers, but also including hospitals, service stations, and insurance firms.

Several programs involve cooperation with more than one level of educational institution, but a large part of the reported involvement is with secondary schools alone. Fifty-three per cent of the reported involvement is at the secondary level: 22% with a single school, 17% with more than one school, and 13% with an entire school system. Eighteen per cent of reported school involvement is with adult basic education facilities, better than half of which is with a single facility. Twelve per cent of school involvement is reported to be at the post-secondary level, 8% at the university level, 5% at the junior college level, and 4% at the elementary school level.

A good many programs involve only the schools and private industry, but where other agencies are involved the state employment agency is more than twice as likely as its nearest competitor to have a role in the program. Of those reporting involvement by other agencies, 36% mention the state employment agency; 16% list the National Alliance of Businessmen; 13% give the Urban League and 13% the local welfare agency; 11% mention a federal anti-poverty agency; 4% the Urban Coalition; and 7% list other groups such as unions, local Chamber of Commerce, or an employers' association.

Fifty per cent of the programs are reported to receive 100% of their financial support from the company involved. Sixteen per cent receive all financial support from the schools, and 9% are entirely federally supported. A quarter of the programs receive partial support from two or more sources such as company and U. S. Department of Labor under an MA-3 contract, federal and state governments, etc. If federal funds are used for a program, they generally come through an MA-3 contract with the Labor Department, the Manpower Development and Training Act, Title I or Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, or the Adult Education Act of 1966.

Programs are most often conducted on company premises or combinations of school and company facilities (with one part of the program being conducted at each location). Thirty-five per cent of the programs are conducted on regular company premises; 4% in special company facilities; 26% on school premises; and 35% in combinations of facilities, the majority on regular company and school premises.

Program Operation

Forty-five per cent of the programs surveyed are designed to improve the employability of prospective employees, including full-time students. Thirty-two per cent of the programs are for part-time students who work part-time for the company, 15% are conducted for present full-time company employees, and 8% are conducted for other groups which some employers felt did not fit the above categories.

The average number of participants in a given program is recorded as 50. However, programs are conducted for as few as two persons and 20% of the programs involve 10 or fewer participants. The largest programs involve adoption of a school by a company; contact with as many as 325 students is claimed by representatives of such programs.

Two-thirds of the programs reported on are training all participants for the same type of job. Most of the other programs list two to four job titles for program participants, but one firm offers training for 17 different jobs within the company. By far the most popular job title is clerk or general office worker, with 37% of the program participants being trained for clerical positions. The next most frequently mentioned job titles are auto mechanic, service station attendant, and welder, with about 20% of the jobs for participants falling into these categories. Other job titles mentioned include industrial sewing machine operator, draftsman, printer, plastics fabricator, pre-apprentice cement mason, warehouseman, assembler, and material handler. The ratio of male to female program participants is approximately 5:3, and the average training period for the jobs mentioned is approximately 30 weeks.

Better than 70% of the jobs given to program participants were available initially, but some summer jobs were created for students and others were broken down into parts so that each student could learn a part at a time. For programs offering jobs to the hard-core unemployed, qualifications for holding certain jobs were lowered: less education and lower physical requirements became acceptable and background investigation standards were made more lenient.

Of those programs offering on-the-job training to participants, 80% pay participants while they learn. In 82% of these programs the company pays all wages. In the remaining programs federal funds are involved and part of participants' pay is thus federally financed. A majority of the participants are paid by the hour, but a few programs pay a weekly or monthly salary, and some federally financed programs pay participants for the days they attend classes.

The average program involves two regular company staff personnel working full-time in a supervisory capacity and five company employees devoting part of their time to the training project. This means that there are roughly seven participants for each company staff member involved in the program.

School staff involved in a typical program include one or two basic education instructors, two counselors who devote part of their time to working with program participants, and one administrator.

Virtually all programs have one company employee designated as the liaison between company and school and one school representative acting in a similar capacity. Only two programs use non-professional aides from the target population on the company staff. In both cases the aide functions as assistant coordinator for the project.

An advisory committee is utilized for 60% of the programs. Typically the committee includes two or three school administrators and a like number of representatives from the company personnel branch. Some advisory groups, however, contain union members, teachers, or members of civic groups such as the Chamber of Commerce, the Urban League, or the Urban Coalition.

About half of the programs surveyed incorporate special training for the school staff involved. Such training usually takes the form of continuous in-service training aimed at helping teachers deal with the special learning problems encountered by the disadvantaged. Quite often company personnel are brought in to orient teachers to the job situation encountered by their students and to up-date teaching materials and course content where possible.

Fifty per cent of the programs reporting include special training for company staff involved in the program. Most often this is general orientation or sensitivity training for first-line supervisors conducted by company training staff in a one-day session.

Seventy-eight per cent of the respondents indicated that unions had not participated in planning or operating their programs. Sixty per cent of these responses, however, were from non-union employers. Fifty-six per cent of the respondents recommend involving unions in planning and operating a program, and they feel that union representatives should be in on the project from its inception.

Thirty-nine per cent of the recruiting for the cooperative programs surveyed takes place through the schools, 17% through public or semi-public employment agencies, 8% through employee referrals, [illegible] through company efforts in target neighborhoods, 7% through newspaper advertising, 7% through ads on radio and TV, 7% through other community agencies such as the Urban League, 4% through applicant backlog in company files, and 3% through direct mailing.

Participation in two-thirds of the cooperative programs is open only to applicants selected via initial screening processes. The remainder of the programs are open to all who volunteer for participation.

When screening is involved the general procedure is for teachers, counselors, and principals to interview students who need employment and the impetus for remaining in school which participation in a cooperative program might provide. Then interest, motivation to succeed, and perhaps test scores, are used to determine which students will be referred to industry for possible employment. The company may accept all individuals referred by the schools, or may make selections based on normal company hiring criteria or on interviews, tests, or performance in a job try-out situation. Two-thirds of the companies report that the screening methods used for their program differ in some way from usual procedures.

Counseling services are reportedly made available to individuals in 88% of the programs. Of those programs offering counseling services 76% provide these services on a regular basis. Several companies offer counseling in problem areas other than those associated strictly with job performance. Financial, health, housing, marital, social, and psychological problems are dealt with in these cases.

Schools responding indicate that about half of the program participants need occasional psychological counseling, about 5% need intensive psychological counseling, and 1 to 2% must be referred to other agencies for further psychological help.

When counseling is offered, the school and the company involved both play a major role in counseling regarding career planning. The school does most of the counseling associated with academic planning and academic difficulties, but the company plays a minor role in this connection. Job performance problems are handled primarily by the company, but school coordinators, teachers, and counselors may also become involved. Both school and company play a part in the solution of health problems and psychological difficulties, but other agencies such as mental health clinics are often called upon for help in these areas. When medical aid is indicated the company may finance the needed examination.

Half of the companies continue to provide counseling services after training is completed to program participants who stay with the company. When this is done, the service is usually offered on a continuing basis as it is needed. About 40% of the programs utilize a buddy system. A co-worker or a first-line supervisor who volunteers for the job is assigned to a participant to help him with any problems he may encounter in performing his job.

On the average program participants spend four hours per day on the job and four hours in the classroom, although in some programs all the classroom work is completed prior to on-the-job training.

School representatives report that cooperation with industry in this type of endeavor has brought about several changes in what the school is doing. Greater flexibility in scheduling and school policy is necessitated as the needs of industry become more clear to the school. Up-dating of course content, teaching methodology, instructional materials, and facilities is taking place through contact with industry. A greater variety of courses and programs is also becoming available at some schools.

Forty per cent of the companies reporting say they expect to employ or retain all the trainees who complete their program. When all respondents are considered, the average percentage of trainees expected to stay with the company is 73.

Population Involved

A majority of the cooperative programs surveyed were designed to aid Negroes. Program representatives report that on the average 60% of the participants in a given program cycle are black, 30% white, 4% Puerto Rican, 3% Mexican-American, 1½% American Indian, and 1½% Oriental.

Thirty-seven per cent of the programs include only male participants, 19% females only, and 44% include both males and females. For the programs in which males are involved, 43% of the male participants are under 18 years of age, 40% are between 18 and 25, 15% are between 25 and 40, and 2% are 40 or over. Where females take part in a program, 56% are under 18, 28% are between 18 and 25, 15% are between 25 and 40, and 1% is over 40.

Eighty-one per cent of the programs reporting are designed for inner-city residents, 6% for residents of rural areas, 1% for migrant workers, and 12% for combinations of individuals from each of these categories.

Forty per cent of the schools involved in cooperative programs report seeking out disadvantaged individuals for the program who would not ordinarily be served by the school. These individuals include young mothers with dependent children and no husbands to provide their support, and men who have either dropped out of high school or obtained a diploma without acquiring the competence to compete successfully in the job market. Sixty per cent of the programs do not involve a population other than that normally served by the school.

Eighty-eight per cent of the companies involved in cooperative programs make no special efforts to bring disadvantaged individuals closer to the company site for the purposes of the program. The other 12% do make such an effort, however. Some work through community agencies to locate housing closer to the company for those participants who wish to move closer. Others may move the training facilities to a site more easily accessible to participants. One company recruits participants from areas throughout its home state where unemployment is especially high.

In 56% of the cooperative programs, participants are given special consideration in the job situation not ordinarily provided to the work force. Such consideration most often applies to work performance, with program participants being given more time and more help in learning to perform a job successfully. More lenient standards for lateness and absence may also be applied. Forty-four per cent of the programs expect participants to meet the same standards as regular company employees.

Eighty per cent of the companies giving program participants special consideration report that there have been no complaints among regular employees about the special treatment. Those companies experiencing complaints usually handle the situation by having first-line supervisors explain the objectives of the program and the special needs of the participants to any workers registering complaints. The fact that dual performance standards are only temporary is emphasized.

Forty-one per cent of the companies reporting list no special problems encountered in dealing with program participants. Where problems have been encountered, the chief concerns are health and transportation. Participants with health problems are referred to the company physician or to a local clinic for treatment. The company often pays for examinations and treatment. To solve the transportation problems, car pools with regular employees may be organized. Housing, absenteeism, and law violations are the next most frequently mentioned problems. Participants who need housing are helped to locate it. Community agencies may be brought in to help. Individual counseling is the approach most often utilized in the areas of absenteeism and law-breaking. Several companies report cultivating friends on the police force so that every effort can be made to give participants a fair shake when they do get into trouble. Garnishment is a problem for a good many program participants and the company often intervenes to see that its participants' debts are paid according to a realistic plan. Low productivity and feelings of hostility toward authority figures are other problems which may yield to individual counseling.

Forty-one per cent of the schools involved report that program staff have encountered no problems in working with the disadvantaged and 10% say their program is too new to tell what problems may develop. Of the problems reported, attendance and scheduling lead the list in frequency of mention. Students in the cooperative programs do not adjust immediately to the need for punctuality and regular attendance, and individual counseling is most often employed to remedy this situation. Working in partnership with companies requires more scheduling flexibility than many schools normally employ, so changes along these lines are necessitated in order to give students the opportunity to attend classes and obtain job training simultaneously. Teachers working directly with program participants may have difficulty communicating with these disadvantaged individuals and thus in-service training designed to increase faculty understanding of the disadvantaged may be carried out. Degradation of vocational teachers by teachers of academic subjects creates staff problems which may be alleviated by better communication of the objectives, and value to students, of the cooperative program.

Thirty-five per cent of the schools surveyed report that participants have encountered no special problems in the program and 9% say the program is too new to make a judgment. Other schools mention some of the same problems as were listed by the cooperating companies, namely, transportation, absenteeism, and hostility toward authority figures. Lack of maturity and experience in a job situation, complicated by incomplete understanding of traditional middle-class values, render the performance of some participants unsatisfactory and special counseling attention is needed to alleviate these problems.

Program Assessment

Cooperative efforts of private industry and the schools to provide job-oriented education for the disadvantaged are generally quite new. Nearly half of the programs responding to this survey have been in operation less than a year. Seventy per cent have been in operation for two years or less. One program claims a 50 year history, one is 13 years old, and one has been operating for seven years. Only 14% of the programs have existed for five or more years; however, 97% expect to continue their operations. When a program has been discontinued, the reason given is that the population for which the program was designed has no further need for it. One company-sponsored upgrading program for regular employees was discontinued, however, because it interfered with over-time work the employees had been doing.

Although approximately 20% of the programs are too young to have had "graduates," an average of 120 individuals have completed each of the older programs. In all the combined experience of these programs about 3000 individuals have completed full training cycles. This figure represents approximately 77% of the total number of persons entering such programs.

Where statistics are available, some schools have found that cooperative programs reduce the dropout rate among students in such programs by 25 to 35%. Unfortunately, 56% of the schools reporting have not kept comparative statistics on the dropout rate and therefore do not know whether their program has had a positive effect or not. For the 44% that do record statistics in this category about half find significant reductions in the dropout rate while half do not.

Loss of interest, personal problems, and dismissal account for two-thirds of the total dropout figure for program participants. Twenty-six per cent leave because they lose interest, 21% due to personal problems, and 19% are dismissed. Eleven per cent leave to take another job, 5% enter military service, 5% are unable to meet training requirements, 3% leave due to medical problems, 2% are arrested and sent to prison, and 8% leave for other reasons such as financial difficulties and relocation in an area too far away to make attendance possible.

Of those program participants who have been employed by the company sponsoring their training, 81% are on the job for which they were trained during the program; 9% are still with the company but are employed in a position not directly related to the one for which they were trained; and 10% have left the company, most within three months. Those who have left the company have done so chiefly because they were moving to another area. Loss of interest, entering military service, and entering college are other reasons given for quitting.

In the experience of 47% of the reporting companies, the turnover rate of program participants employed upon completion of the program has been significantly lower than the normal employee turnover rate for the company. Thirty-eight per cent of the companies have seen no change in turnover rate as a result of participation in the program, and 15% report higher turnover among program participants.

Only four companies have what they consider reliable data on program participants who completed their programs and were hired by other companies. All report that the other employers have expressed satisfaction with the performance of these individuals and that the percentage still employed exceeds 80%.

Since each company figures training costs according to its own criteria, comparative cost data are exceedingly difficult to obtain. Bearing in mind this limitation, $655 is given by responding firms as the average out-of-pocket company expense per trainee completing a cooperative program. Estimates for this figure range from 0 to $3000. Those companies reporting no training costs pay participants regular wages for work performed and thus feel that the program itself costs nothing. Regardless of the cost figure given, only one company considered its program to be an expensive one and this was due to the lowered productivity experienced as trainees were just beginning to learn their jobs. Many companies expressed the opinion that the program was considered a public service so desperately needed (as in the riot-scarred areas of the largest cities) that it should be carried out no matter how expensive it might prove to be. Other companies felt that their program was a relatively inexpensive one because the initial cost was more than offset later by the reduced turnover rate and good performance of employees gained following completion of a program cycle.

Companies list a number of advantages of working with the schools in a program of this type. First, the schools are able to offer trained personnel who understand the teaching-learning process, classroom space and teaching materials, and professional counselors and administrators to take care of the basic education and some of the skill training needs of program participants. These contributions obviate the company's need for adding more personnel to its training staff or hiring a private training firm to provide basic education for participants. Companies are naturally interested in recruiting the best possible applicants for their positions, and the schools can help to identify such individuals for participation in a training program.

Companies feel that working with the schools on a cooperative program fosters better relationships between the two organizations and results in better understanding by school people of the needs of industry. This understanding helps the schools make their vocational training more realistic, which in turn results in better prepared school graduates for companies to hire. The cooperative programs also provide some students with the motivation they need to remain in school, and thus individuals who were potential economic liabilities are converted to productive assets to society.

Company personnel generally like to see immediate action on problems. Thus the greatest disadvantage companies see in working with the schools is the slowness of bureaucratic school administrations in effecting changes in scheduling, curriculum, and staffing that will enable industry to meet its objectives. Even communication of company needs to school staff is not always an easy task. Where students are brought into a company to learn their first job the initial loss of productivity is also considered a rather serious problem connected with operation of the program. However, over half of the reporting companies see no disadvantage connected with working with the schools on a cooperative program.

Companies list a number of benefits that have been derived from conducting a job-oriented education program. They have succeeded in making vocational training more realistic for many cooperating schools and this in turn has given the companies better trained employees. The fact that the company is making a visible effort to train and employ the disadvantaged enhances the corporate image in the community and is thus rated as a public relations plus for the company. Improved relationships with dissident minority groups is a resultant benefit listed by several companies. Where programs were initiated by companies for the purpose of up-grading present employees, the response on the part of the employees who benefit has been quite positive. Offering such a program helps to communicate a feeling that the company really cares about them and their futures and the employees' response to this concern is reflected in increased productivity and reduced turnover.

In listing negative factors associated with participation in cooperative programs company representatives again refer most often to the loss of production incurred while new employees are being trained. A second important concern is that ill will may be engendered if more trainees complete a program than can be immediately placed in available jobs. Finally, some companies have had to deal with negative reactions on the part of regular employees to relaxation of certain hiring standards and to special consideration on the job being given to program participants. Fifty-seven per cent of the respondents could think of no negative factors associated with participation in the program, however.

School representatives list a host of needs in connection with operating cooperative programs: more supervisors and coordinators to handle the administrative details of the programs; more funds for staffing, for instructional materials and facilities, and for special services needed by disadvantaged participants; and more flexibility in scheduling classes for program participants and in other areas of school policy. More teachers with a sympathetic understanding of the problems of the disadvantaged are needed, and the schools feel that industry should also seek more first-line supervisors for program participants who are willing and able to deal with their special needs in the job situation. Getting to industry with program ideas at the outset is difficult since schools do not have "salesmen" for their programs as some of the new private training outfits have. A need emphasized by most schools is that of more positions for students in cooperative programs. There simply are not enough openings in industrial programs to involve all, or even most, of the youth who want and need to participate in a cooperative program. The plea by the schools is for more companies to set up programs. Another complaint voiced by a few schools is that industry may find an outstanding teacher and take him away from the school with the offer of a more attractive salary and less difficult working conditions!

The most outstanding positive factor associated with school participation in cooperative programs is the increased communication with industry which results in curriculum and course content changes that make the training and education provided by the school more relevant to the needs students will meet in tomorrow's world of work. The dialogue with industry has also made industry and other community organizations aware for the first time of the existence of many school programs which could be of tremendous benefit to the out-of-school adult population if their availability were only known to the persons who need them. Once this awareness is established many companies take advantage of the schools' offerings to provide upgrading and retraining opportunities for their employees. The schools then benefit from increased use of their facilities and society benefits as more and more individuals increase their level of education.

Sixty-four per cent of the school representatives report no disadvantage resulting from cooperation with industry in a job-oriented education program. Of those that do, the most outstanding problem is getting enough industries to offer enough positions to allow everyone who wants and needs to participate in a cooperative program to do so. There is also some conflict in a few programs between the more altruistic desire on the part of schools to promote the development of human resources and the profit-making goals of industry. School personnel sometimes feel that industry is more concerned about producing goods than about helping an individual develop his full potential.

Conclusions

A significant gap in communication between business and the schools is finally being acknowledged in a number of communities throughout the nation. At the June, 1967 "Business-Civic Leadership Conference on Employment Problems" in Chicago, William Flynn (1967) of the National Association of Manufacturers told businessmen:

> Educators say, 'We don't know what to do with business; they don't cooperate. They don't talk to us.' You say to them, 'When was the last time you talked to business?' 'Well, we're waiting for them to come to us,' and business groups say 'Damned educators...they don't understand' (p.21).

Businessmen participating in that conference complained that the school's job training programs were only "remedial," "treating the symptom and not the disease," and many programs were proving to be a waste of the taxpayers' money because they were producing graduates business and industry could not use. Other comments made by the businessmen include:

> Vocational education is still training "buggy whip makers" and similar outmoded skills rather than for industry's increasingly technical needs.
>
> School counsellors and other school personnel are often totally uninformed about actual job opportunities in neighborhood communities. Also, they are frequently prejudiced and hold unfair "stereotypes" about industry or factory type jobs (National Citizens' Committee for Community Relations, 1967, p.21).

After complaints had been brought into the open, however, conference participants recognized that industry and the schools have a mutual need to identify potential skills and adapt them to changing situations. Accordingly, businessmen were urged to get on local schoolboards, to find systematic ways of sharing the business world with educators, and to investigate local vocational education programs in order to find ways to help develop curriculum and to provide instruction and materials needed to make the programs relevant to industry's needs.

Results of the survey undertaken as a part of the present study indicate that the establishment of closer working relationships between private industry and the schools can produce outstanding advantages for both parties.

Contact with industry has fostered greater flexibility in school scheduling and in other policy areas. It has also brought about up-dating of course content, teaching methodology, instructional materials and facilities. A greater variety of courses and vocational programs is being made possible in many schools. These changes combine to make vocational training in the schools more realistic. Thus industry is more satisfied with graduates, and more students are encouraged to stay in school to pick up training that now seems more relevant for life outside the school classroom. New opportunities to advertise school program offerings are another result of increased contact with industry. Consequently more individuals become aware of the school's potential for retraining and upgrading.

Cooperation with the schools has given business and industry a chance to improve the match between what the schools teach and what industry expects of its new employees. As a consequence the schools are turning out a product that industry can buy with much more satisfaction and thus the turnover rate among new employees is reduced. Improved employee attitudes toward the company and increased productivity are additional benefits derived by industry when cooperation with schools takes the form of upgrading and retraining programs for company employees.

Thirty-nine per cent of the recruiting for the industry-school cooperative programs surveyed in this study took place through the schools. Apparently the schools constitute a potential recruiting source that too few companies are utilizing to full advantage. When industry teams up with the schools to provide work experience and education for in-school youth, industry seems to be tapping a rich source of future employees since ~~approximately three-fourths~~ of the students involved in such programs go on to become regular employees of the companies that trained them.

Listing advantages for industry-school cooperation becomes an easy matter once cooperative relationships are established. But too few good working relationships exist and means must be found to correct this situation. In this study the first steps toward cooperation were taken by the schools in only 25% of the cases. Of course industry should not be discouraged from taking the lead, but in view of the evidence of positive contributions which schools can make to industry, educators have no excuse for lagging behind. School personnel should acquire the confidence to approach private industry with new ideas for cooperative programs. Since better than one-third of the cooperative programs surveyed in this study reported involving the state department of employment security, this agency would seem to constitute a third legitimate source of the initiative for bringing together the schools and industry.

Rioting by desperate minorities in the nation's population centers has provided the impetus for establishment of some cooperative job-training and education programs in the cities. But, as has been pointed out previously in this paper, some of the roots of the great urban problems lie in the conditions which exist in rural areas. Rural farm and non-farm workers, migrant laborers, and members of the American Indian population living on reservations become so discouraged with their lack of opportunity for meaningful training and subsequent employment that many of them collect their families and a few possessions and move to the cities in search of a better life. If anything, these individuals are even less prepared to provide for themselves in the city than they were in the country, and few find the improved lot they were seeking. The disappointment and subsequent desperation they experience breed the violence which has erupted in the cities.

We tend to put our resources where they will appear to do the most immediate good. Consequently 81% of the cooperative programs included in this survey are designed for residents of the inner-cities. Establishment of cooperative programs in smaller cities and towns is badly needed, however. Benefits of training and employment programs which would encourage formerly dissatisfied students to stay on to become productive citizens of their own home town would naturally accrue to the local community, but just as importantly, these individuals would be prevented from swelling the ranks of the dissident in the nation's urban areas.

The number of cooperative training and employment programs must be increased, even in those areas where they now exist, to prevent the charge of tokenism which is often leveled at those who seem to be doing most by disgruntled individuals who know programs are available and cannot understand why there is not room for them to participate. To date only about 3000 persons have been trained in the cooperative programs surveyed and this is certainly an insignificant figure when compared with the millions who need the benefits these programs can convey.

Companies and schools that have established cooperative job-oriented programs have certainly taken a giant step forward, but room for improvement still exists with regard to certain aspects of these programs. Research evidence suggests that a person learns a task more efficiently when the job is broken down into parts and the individual is allowed to master each part at his own speed before moving on to the next part. More structuring of this type is needed in the job-training components of cooperative programs.

Businessmen are beginning to replace the practice of "finding the man for the job" with that of "fitting the job to the man", thus making use of new approaches to screening, hiring, and training to seek out and utilize human potential. Some school personnel have complained, however, that the companies they work with are seemingly more concerned with immediate productivity on the part of a trainee than with pre-work orientation, counseling, and basic education which the worker needs to develop toward his full potential in the future. These essential companions to actual job training for the disadvantaged must not be ignored if cooperative programs hope to remove participants from the ranks of the jobless permanently.

In 56% of the cooperative programs surveyed participants are given special consideration in the job situation not ordinarily provided to the work force. Most often this consideration applies to work performance, with program participants being given more time and more help in learning to perform a job successfully. More lenient standards for lateness and absence may also be applied. Forty-four per cent of the programs expect participants to meet the same standards as regular company employees. Dr. Kenneth Clark, noted Negro psychologist, believes that disadvantaged individuals should be expected to meet those standards of performance which are essential to industrial efficiency, but intensive counseling services should be available for these new employees in order that (1) they may be helped to understand why the standards are important, and (2) company personnel may come to understand why the disadvantaged have difficulty in meeting the standards. Hopefully, both the companies that say they expect program participants to meet the same standards as regular company employees, and those that say they do not, make available to the participants the needed counseling services.

The average program figures of seven participants to each company staff member involved in the cooperative program certainly constitute a more favorable student-teacher or student-counselor ratio than exists in most schools. This may indeed account for a good deal of the increased effectiveness of company training programs when compared with traditional school programs. The enormity of the problems confronting disadvantaged individuals as they enter the training situation makes it impossible to deal with them effectively in large groups. Schools must recognize this fact and make a greater effort to reduce class size and counselor load for school personnel involved in programs for the disadvantaged.

Only half of the programs surveyed incorporate special training for company or school staff involved in the program. Since the disadvantaged present many unique problems both in the classroom and in the work situation, it would seem that more sensitivity training and other special helps should be made available for those on whose understanding of the disadvantaged the success of the programs depends.

Most (88%) of the programs provide counseling services for participants, but all of them should. Only half of the companies continue to make counseling available to program participants who subsequently become regular employees. Since counseling is always a long-range undertaking, and since new problems are bound to be associated when a move is made from trainee to regular employee, it would seem that availability of counseling after training should be more widespread.

One area in which all existing cooperative job-oriented programs could be improved is that of evaluation. Follow-up to ascertain why individuals drop out of a program before completion, or quit a job which they took upon completion of the program, is almost universally ignored. Schools do not keep records which would enable them to make a judgment as to whether or not operation of a cooperative program actually had an effect on the school drop-out rate. Admittedly such data may be difficult to obtain and may appear to be more costly than their ultimate usefulness warrants, but without evaluative data the worth of cooperative programs cannot be proven except in subjective terms.

PART TWO

DISSEMINATION SEMINARS

DISSEMINATION SEMINARS

Introduction

In order to provide guidance for future utilization of the information compiled as a result of Part One activities, a trial component was added to the fact-finding phase. Part Two of this study involved conduct of three one-day seminars in order to test the seminar approach to disseminating information on cooperative job-oriented education programs. Since conference-planning is a complex activity and requires a great deal of knowledge of the local situation, the first seminar was conducted in the community most familiar to conference staff, Knoxville, Tennessee. Groups interested in assuming the major responsibility for planning conferences in their own communities were found in other parts of the country, however, so two additional meetings were held in Denver, Colorado and New York, New York.

Knoxville Seminar

Initial Planning

The Knoxville seminar was designed (1) to bring together businessmen, educators, and other community leaders in the Knoxville area so that they might become acquainted with the materials and survey findings developed in the course of this project, and (2) to obtain from these conference participants suggestions as to how to further disseminate project materials most effectively. In order to obtain guidance for conduct of the seminar from the segments of the community which were to be asked to participate, small groups of known leaders in business, the schools, and civic work were called together in September and October for meetings with project staff. Specific recommendations regarding seminar content and whom to invite were contributed by all three groups. But from the outset it was clear that seminar participation by members of the Knoxville business community would be the hardest to acquire, so the advisory committee of businessmen was asked to meet on a continuing basis. The contribution of this committee to solution of such problems as what level of corporate officialdom to invite, how to approach these individuals, how to handle financial details, and how to encourage more businessmen to attend, was invaluable.

The seminar was eventually given the title "Conference on Cooperation of Business and the Schools to Provide Job-Oriented Education for the Disadvantaged" and scheduled for 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. on January 8, 1969 in the conference facilities of the University of Tennessee Student Center. The local newspapers carried two articles on the conference prior to January 8 inviting interested individuals to attend. The newsletter of the Knoxville Chamber of Commerce also carried publicity on the meeting. But the most effective means of inviting participation was a mailing to company presidents of a cross section of Knoxville businesses and industrial firms, selected school personnel, and civic leaders. The mailing consisted of a brief letter inviting representation at the meeting, a copy of the conference agenda, and a third sheet containing further information on the conference.

The Conference Program

The Knoxville conference was divided into two distinct segments: identification of problems in the morning sessions and a look at possible solutions during the afternoon. Before noon the members of the advisory committee of Knoxville businessmen, and two community leaders well acquainted with the problems of the local disadvantaged population, identified the job-related training and education needs of Knoxville. After lunch project staff and a number of invited guests from other cities indicated some ways in which private industry and the schools might cooperate to provide programs designed to meet those needs. It was hoped that looking at the community resources existing in Knoxville for putting together training and education programs for the disadvantaged, and hearing the uses made of similar resources in other communities (via the report on exemplary job-oriented programs) would give Knoxville businessmen and educators ideas for new cooperative training and education programs for the local disadvantaged population.

A total of 95 individuals, or approximately 60% of the number invited by mail, attended the January 8 conference. Following registration (which included payment of a $5 fee to cover the cost of luncheon, coffee, conference materials, and incidental items) a welcoming statement was issued by one of the project directors and an introduction to project activities and conference objectives was given. Reference was made to summaries of papers making up the final project report which had been prepared as conference materials. (A copy of the Conference Agenda and all other conference materials appears in Appendix B.)

Keynote Address

The keynote speaker was Herbert Larrabee, Industrial Relations Manager of the Union Machinery Division of American Machine and Foundry Co. (AMF) in Richmond, Virginia. Mr. Larrabee challenged management in business and industry to set objectives for 5 to 10 years hence so that manpower needs for the future could be determined and training programs to meet those needs established now. With the present unemployment rate of 2.6% in Knoxville local firms are still having little trouble in finding high school graduates and other so-called "qualified" individuals to fill their job openings. Mr. Larrabee pointed out that this situation could change in a matter of two or three years, however, and with unemployment at 2% or below, the demand for workers would force most firms to hire individuals formerly deemed "unqualified". The time to train such persons to qualify them for employment is now.

Mr. Larrabee used slides to illustrate that other companies throughout the country were hiring and training the disadvantaged, often involving local schools in the training and education activities. Then he described the efforts made by AMF in Richmond to strengthen vocational education programs so that local schools would be producing graduates qualified for employment in industry. AMF management was instrumental in laying the plans for a new vocational-technical school near the company site in Richmond, and the firm has continued to make contributions to the school in the form of part-time instructors, curriculum advice, equipment, and financial aid to students. Using the schools to help train disadvantaged workers for positions with AMF has been a productive investment for the company. It is now getting the qualified employees it needs even though this would ordinarily be very difficult in a community such as Richmond where unemployment stands at 1.7%.

Mr. Larrabee then introduced Hans Lange, AMF Vice President for Manufacturing, who presented the production manager's reaction to a personnel policy of hiring and training the disadvantaged. Mr. Lange pointed out that hiring the disadvantaged is an indication of social concern on the part of industry, but it's also a matter of self interest -- profit-making is certainly not ignored. Slides were utilized to illustrate the fact that AMF needed skilled employees to handle highly complex machinery and that the disadvantaged were trained to meet the company's needs with such success that AMF's current return on assets exceeds 30%. Mr. Lange closed with the question, "Who says hiring the disadvantaged doesn't pay off?"

Mr. Larrabee continued with the stipulation that counseling and other special services are essential in working with the unique problems presented by disadvantaged workers. Extra effort on the part of the employer is required, but federal funds are available through MDTA, MA-3 and -4 contracts, and other sources to offset the expense this effort entails. All things considered, "The advantages associated with hiring and training the disadvantaged far outweigh the disadvantages," said Mr. Larrabee. In listing assets associated with its training program, AMF includes meeting the need for skilled entry level employees, thus enabling former employees in these positions to be promoted; lower turnover rates; reduced training costs due to cooperation with the schools and to reimbursement from the federal government; reduced absenteeism; fewer persons on welfare in the community; lower crime rates; increase in local tax receipts due to payment of taxes on wages earned by employees formerly on welfare rolls; and better public relations as the community becomes aware of the company's interest in social welfare.

Businessmen's Panel

Mr. Larrabee represented a company already committed to hiring and training the disadvantaged. Few Knoxville firms have made this commitment, and the second session of the conference gave a panel of Knoxville businessmen an opportunity to express management's reservations about bringing in the disadvantaged as employees. The panel included representatives of the primary sources of employment in Knoxville: manufacturing, wholesale and retail merchandising, and the service industries.

The Knoxville businessmen began by pointing out that the labor situation in the city is such that "qualified" employees can be found for most positions and thus there is limited impetus for hiring the disadvantaged. Management in business and industry is worried about the necessity of lowering its traditional hiring standards to admit the disadvantaged. There is a widespread concern that present employees will resent lowered hiring standards and the special consideration that will ultimately have to be given to disadvantaged co-workers. In some companies insurance rates will escalate if less qualified workers are hired, and insurance companies may even refuse to insure an individual who has run afoul of the law at some point in his career.

Even supposing a willingness on the part of an employer to hire the disadvantaged, Knoxville businessmen posed further problems. They pointed out that recruitment is difficult. Newspaper and radio ads do not produce many disadvantaged applicants for job openings. Those that do apply most often do not meet hiring criteria. The Knoxville businessmen thus concluded that the schools should do a better job of preparing students for the world of work and that more training programs for the disadvantaged should be initiated, or, at least, those programs in existence should be made known to the individuals who need them most.

Following the businessmen's panel, time was allowed for questions and further comments by other conference participants. Mr. Lange from AMF reiterated that while there might not appear to be a need for putting the disadvantaged into jobs in Knoxville right now, industry is beginning to move south and the '70's and '80's may see firms in Knoxville suffering extreme labor shortages if plans are not laid now for making all available manpower employable. Negro leaders present pointed out that Knoxville has very few firms employing more than 100 persons, so a large number of concerns are virtually family operations offering few employment opportunities for outsiders, especially the disadvantaged. More active recruitment of large industrial firms to locate in Knoxville and increased efforts of smaller companies to find places in their organizations for minority group members and disadvantaged whites were called for by these persons.

Conference participants called the fear of negative employee reaction to special treatment of the disadvantaged a straw man and several employers reported that their experience had taught them that explanations of the situation and requests for aid and understanding on the part of regular employees had counteracted the few negative reactions that had come to light.

Local anti-poverty agency workers pointed out that the likelihood of being arrested was much greater for the disadvantaged than for other segments of the population, and that very often arrests did not result in convictions. The inference was that a record of arrests should not necessarily bar an individual from employment. Even those with criminal convictions can often become dependable employees when given the training and the opportunity to earn a decent living.

Several participants noted that many disadvantaged individuals cannot read a newspaper and thus miss out on advertisements about jobs. Using black media, such as the local black radio station, represents a more promising recruiting device for some segments of the disadvantaged population. But even this may not produce disadvantaged applicants because many individuals have been rejected for jobs so many times before that they simply have stopped responding to advertisements of any kind. These individuals must be contacted personally in their own neighborhoods and convinced that a company really wants to employ them. One personnel director pointed out that local organizations such as the Urban League could help put employers in contact with disadvantaged persons interested in work, and after hiring a few such individuals employee referrals could be used in recruitment.

Problems of Local Disadvantaged Population

Following the businessmen's panel the director of the Knoxville Urban League and the director of the local Community Action Committee presented some of the job-related problems of Knoxville's disadvantaged population, which is made up primarily of Appalachian whites. There are approximately five poor whites for each poor Negro in the area. The CAC director projected a map which outlined the poorest areas of the city and noted that many of the businesses represented at the conference were within these areas. Using the figure of 50,000 poor in these areas the director pointed out that 10,000 of the people were too old or disabled to work and were therefore on welfare, 10,000 were unemployed, and 30,000 were working and still classified below the poverty level. He described a typical case of a young mother who had taken secretarial training and obtained employment, but ended up making less per month than she had when she and her children were receiving benefits from Aid to Families with Dependent Children. Thus the need on the part of the disadvantaged is not simply for jobs, but rather for jobs that pay a decent wage.

The CAC director reiterated the fact that many of the city's disadvantaged persons had experienced continual failure in competition for jobs and had finally given up trying to find employment. Many Knoxville businesses have gone outside Knox County for up to 50% of their employees rather than hire the disadvantaged living right across the street from their firms. Passing places day after day that offer employment to outsiders and deny wages to them may soon create such frustration on the part of the disadvantaged that "tossing a match or a brick" at the object of their frustration may appear to be the only recourse left to them, warned the director. He called on local businessmen to prove that their sporadic recruiting efforts among the disadvantaged were producing real jobs for applicants and not just names to be placed in a file.

The Urban League director emphasized that no ethnic group has a monopoly on disadvantagement. Business, education, and other sources of help in the community must combine forces to fight unemployment and under-employment among all disadvantaged groups in Knoxville. The community mood must change from one of sympathy to one of responsibility for seeking solutions to the problems that exist. It's not realistic to depend on the same solutions that have seemed to work for the last two, three, even five decades. Riots throughout the country have resulted in more action favorable to the disadvantaged than any other means, but rioting certainly should not be necessary. Plans for progress with respect to the disadvantaged could prevent the occurrence of civil disorders in Knoxville.

The Urban League director outlined some of the general characteristics of disadvantaged individuals such as xenophobia, a feeling that they have no control over their own lives, envy of and hostility toward those more prosperous than themselves, apathy, and concern with mere survival rather than with attempts to better one's station in life. These are just a few of the characteristics employers must come to understand as they attempt to work with the disadvantaged. Even communication may be difficult to establish at the outset, but it can be achieved, to the mutual benefit of the employer and the disadvantaged. This heretofore neglected element of our society must be made to feel that its members are really wanted by employers, that they will be accepted at face value.

Local Occupational Preparation Programs

Following luncheon, avenues of solution for the problems posed during the morning sessions were explored. In the first afternoon session one of the project directors briefly outlined all current programs in the Knoxville area related to occupational preparation. These included vocational offerings in Knoxville City and Knox County schools, adult education programs, evening technical and trade extensions, the local area vocational-technical school, Knoxville MDTA center, the Apprenticeship Opportunity Center, New Careers, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, and the new Knoxville Opportunities Industrialization Center. Representatives of most of these programs were present at the conference and those who wished to comment on details of their operations were given an opportunity to do so.

A copy of the document which summarizes these programs appears in Appendix B under the title "Programs Related to Occupational Preparation Serving the Knoxville-Knox County Area". This represents the first attempt undertaken in Knoxville to compile a single reference work on all such programs, and as such it should provide businessmen and other community leaders with a much better understanding of what efforts are already underway to provide occupational education and training, and thus where such assistance for specific groups or individuals might best be obtained.

Exemplary Cooperative Programs - Survey Results and Panel of Representatives

The second afternoon session was designed to accomplish three things: (1) to acquaint conference participants with the survey of exemplary cooperative job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged undertaken as a part of this project, (2) to allow representatives of a few of these programs to outline their own activities, and (3) to allow the Knoxville audience to ask questions of the panel members. The representatives of exemplary programs were not from Knoxville (see Appendix B for list of conference speakers) and it was hoped that the Knoxville businessmen and educators could draw upon their diverse experiences for suggested solutions to local employment and training problems.

One of the project directors outlined the methods used to collect data on exemplary cooperative programs, then characterized a few of the programs, and finally summarized the data obtained from questionnaires completed on each program (for a complete report on the survey see Part I, Section VI.

Panel members were introduced and each briefly outlined his own company's program. Exemplary programs in the survey which were represented by an individual on the panel included a basic education program for company employees in low level positions, a retail merchandising program for prospective employees, a basic education and skills training program for under-employed persons, a remedial education and job training program for school dropouts and the hard-core unemployed, and a work-study for potential school dropouts. (Brief outlines of each program represented are included in Appendix B.) Two other panel members represented companies heavily involved in training for the disadvantaged, but their programs were not included in our survey because they did not involve schools.

A number of ideas and details not brought out in any other session of the conference were mentioned by panel members. Cooperation between school and industry in one program has already reduced the school dropout rate by 13% in its first year of operation. In the retail merchandising program the difficulty the disadvantaged experience in setting long-term goals is recognized by paying trainees for each day's work at the end of that day. Immediate gratification seems to be a significant factor in retaining the trainees in this program.

The need for first-line supervisors who really care about helping the disadvantaged was emphasized by all the speakers. Child care is furnished for mothers involved in some company programs and this has been an important factor in reducing turn-over and absenteeism among the women affected. Federal funds can be obtained for the child care programs. Finally, the officials for one program which utilized federal funds had calculated that within five years after a trainee completed a program and took a job in the area for which he had been prepared the government would recover its training investment in taxes paid by the individual.

In the discussion which followed the presentation by panel members, the question that provoked the strongest response concerned how the disadvantaged could be encouraged to work when they found they could collect more money by remaining unemployed and on welfare. One response was that as industry moved south in the '70's unionization would increase and some of the employers now paying comparatively low wages to low level employees would be forced to put more into the worker's pay envelope. Another reply to this question recommended counseling for new employees which would include stress on learning to look to the future. Disadvantaged workers need to look ahead to higher pay which can be achieved through promotions if they determine to stick with a job and continue to increase their capabilities.

Final Session - Recommendations for Future Action

A portion of the conference schedule had been designated for small group discussions, with each group being composed of representatives of private industry, the schools, and other community organizations, and including one of the out-of-town speakers as a consultant. Unfortunately a number of scheduling problems arose and the small group sessions had to be omitted, but a general discussion by all conference participants was substituted. The audience was asked to voice any ideas that had resulted from the day's presentations regarding new ways in which industry and education in Knoxville might cooperate to provide occupational preparation for the disadvantaged.

A representative of an insurance agency in Knoxville (of which there are approximately 400) suggested that the insurance industry and the schools might get together on a program to train secretaries for insurance offices. A similar suggestion was made with regard to training for legal secretaries, which might be sponsored by the schools and the local bar association. An educator suggested that one traditional form of industry-school cooperation -- high school career days -- could be improved considerably if local companies would send as their representatives personnel men, who really know their company's employment needs, rather than public relations people.

Several conference participants suggested that greater efforts be made to coordinate the activities of the various local agencies interested in one way or another in occupational preparation for the disadvantaged. Finally a recommendation was made to form a committee under the direction of conference personnel to work out ways of accomplishing this coordination, and to inaugurate new cooperative programs. Each person present was asked to fill out a card suggesting agencies and individuals to be involved in such an undertaking.

Evaluation

At the end of the conference each participant was asked to complete a "Conference Evaluation Form". Unfortunately many of the businessmen present at the morning sessions had left before lunch or after the afternoon coffee break, so evaluation sheets were completed by only half of the original 95 participants. Tabulated results of the evaluation appear in Appendix F. (Participants were told to omit items 15, 19, 20, 21, and 22 since they were not relevant to the program as it finally evolved, but a few individuals responded to the items anyway.)

The presentation by panel members from out-of-town cooperative programs was considered the most valuable session of the day by participants. The keynote address and presentation of problems by local businessmen received nearly equal ratings for the second most valuable session. Other sessions were considered less effective.

Generally conference participants reacted favorably to specific parts of the program. But some rather strong feeling were evoked during the open discussions early in the day, e.g., some educators felt that the businessmen were accusing them of failing to produce qualified candidates for jobs, and some businessmen felt that Negroes present were accusing them of discrimination in their hiring practices, and these feelings show up in a number of negative reactions to various parts of the program, notably Part Four, the description of problems experienced by the local disadvantaged population. Some participants also responded negatively to items such as 18, 26, and 29 because they were looking for more specific recommendations regarding hiring of the hard-core unemployed or minority group members than we were prepared to give as a part of this particular conference.

Recommendations for Change

On a separate page conference participants were asked to suggest changes which would enhance the effectiveness of the conference. As a result of the responses to this item and verbal reactions received after the conference, the following recommendations for changes in the program can be made:

1. Certain conference materials should be mailed to participants in advance so that they will have a better understanding of conference objectives and thus more time can be given to panelists and speakers.

2. More personnel should be available to help with registration prior to the conference so that time of participants is not wasted during the procedure and the conference can begin on time.

3. Speakers should be made more conscious of limitations on the time devoted to their presentations. Stronger chairmanship is needed to hold speakers to their time allotments.

4. The conference should be lengthened to two days to allow adequate time for (a) representatives of exemplary cooperative programs to talk about their programs and to answer questions from the audience, (b) contact with a selected group of disadvantaged individuals from the local area who can present their problems in a most realistic way, and (c) discussion in small groups composed of a cross section of conference participants.

5. The presentation of survey results and description of selected exemplary programs can be condensed considerably if the conference materials developed to accompany this presentation are mailed to participants prior to the conference.

6. Involve local educators in conference planning as extensively as local businessmen were involved in the plans for this meeting.

Early Results of Conference

Within one week after the conference the following results could be noted:

1. A total of 29 conference participants volunteered to serve on a committee to effect coordination of efforts of organizations interested in occupational preparation in the Knoxville area. These individuals named 25 organizations that should be represented on such a committee. Plans were made by project staff to organize this committee.

2. During the conference an industry representative stated that his firm had had great difficulty recruiting minority employees. Following the conference this representative met with the director of the Community Action Committee who was able to furnish the company with a number of Negro applicants whom it subsequently hired.

3. The suggestion that insurance and law firms team up with schools to provide specialized training for secretarial students was being explored with industry representatives.

4. A local firm contacted the Urban League to obtain aid in establishing a hiring and training program for the disadvantaged.

Denver Seminar

Initial Planning

In October telephone contact was made with Dr. Marvin Linson, the Director of the Division of Occupational Education in Colorado, and his cooperation in conducting a meeting in Denver was secured. Denver was chosen as the site for a second seminar because its size, its location, and the nature of its disadvantaged population made it significantly different from Knoxville, thus broadening the base of representation for the try-out phase of this study. Denver's size and location made it one of the National Alliance of Businessmen's (NAB) target cities, and this group has stimulated much interest and activity in the area of employing the disadvantaged. Spanish Americans constitute the largest segment of Denver's disadvantaged population. Over 40% of the poor in Denver are of Latin descent, nearly 40% are white, and about 20% are black.

Responsibility for planning the Denver conference was given to Dr. M. G. Hunt, Director of Program Services within the Division of Occupational Education. The meeting was scheduled for January 29 from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. at the State Services Building in Denver. Occupational education administrators in the Denver schools were invited to the conference, and each of the local agencies concerned with the job-related problems of the disadvantaged was asked to send a representative. Contact with the NAB produced the names of Denver businessmen interested in employment and training for the disadvantaged, and these individuals were invited. Fifty-five persons attended the January 29 meeting, with approximately 20% of the conferees representing private industry, 50% representing the schools, and 30% representing other community agencies.

Those responsible for the Denver conference were encouraged to expand upon the basic conference theme of "Cooperation of Business and the Schools to Provide Job-Oriented Education for the Disadvantaged" in whatever ways they felt would be most effective for their particular setting. However, as plans and materials for the Knoxville meeting were developed, they were sent to the Denver planners, and the Denver staff attended the Knoxville meeting on January 8. The two programs therefore evolved along similar lines.

The Conference Program

As was the case in Knoxville, the Denver program was designed to present first the employer's problems in dealing with disadvantaged workers, then the job-related problems of the disadvantaged, and finally possible solutions to these problems which might be achieved through cooperative efforts. The conference program is outlined in Appendix B.

Dr. M. G. Hunt opened the morning session with a statement regarding the objectives of the conference and a request that all participants be present throughout the day in order to achieve these objectives. He emphasized that the group discussions in the afternoon could not be productive of action without full representation by all organizations in attendance at the morning session.

Dr. Marvin Linson issued the official welcome from the sponsoring Division of Occupational Education and expressed the hope that the conference would produce new approaches to solution of the problems of the disadvantaged.

Dr. Banta was in attendance at the meeting and outlined for the group the project of which the Denver conference was a part. Reference was made to the folder of conference materials given to each participant, and the significance of each document was explained. The materials used in Knoxville which were also selected for use in Denver included Tables 2, 3, and 4, and the papers entitled "Identification of the Disadvantaged", "What is Meant by Disadvantagement?" and "Characteristics of the Disadvantaged."

Keynote Address

The keynote speaker, Marvin Buckels, was qualified to represent both business and education as he viewed job-related programs for the disadvantaged. Mr. Buckels is employed as Vice-President of Midland Savings and Loan Company in Denver, is an active member of NAB, and serves as Vice-Chairman of Colorado's State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education.

Mr. Buckels believes that private industry is just beginning to take the role it should have assumed long ago in attacking the nation's social problems. In the past business ignored these problems because it was primarily interested in short-term profits; because care of the disadvantaged was considered a responsibility for government, not industry; and because Depression psychology created the myth that economic growth alone would combat poverty for all segments of society. But these assumptions have not been proven valid. Business must look beyond the yearly profit statement in order to determine its future employment needs in relation to society's demands for goods and services, and to prepare now to meet those needs. Government has attempted to cure social ills, but the task is too great for any one sector of the economy; private industry must become involved. Finally, it has become quite obvious that tremendous economic growth does not automatically provide for the well-being of all citizens.

Mr. Buckels blames both industry and the schools for creating an educational system and a job market which have no meaning for some elements of our society. We have made education appear to be an end rather than a means for preparing the individual for full and effective participation in society.

There are reasons to be optimistic about the effect which a combined school-industry attack can have on today's social problems. Following World War II American business effected a tremendous economic recovery which has since been productive of the greatest gross national product the world has ever known. Under the impetus provided by the launching of the Soviet Sputnik the American educational system incorporated more and better curricula and counseling assistance for students capable of making a contribution to the future technical superiority of the nation.

These achievements lend support to the belief that real progress can be made if the combined resources of the business and education communities are now brought to bear on the problem of providing for the welfare of our disadvantaged population. Mr. Buckels cited the work of the NAB as one indication that business is beginning to commit itself to solution of this problem, but the schools must become involved also.

Businessmen's Panel

Four Denver businessmen, whose companies have cooperated with NAB in its program of setting up training and job slots for the hard core unemployed, described their programs and pointed out the problems associated with hiring and retaining the disadvantaged.

One of the 64 exemplary programs surveyed in the course of this study is located in Denver and was represented on the businessmen's panel. Mr. Melvin Johnson of Honeywell, Inc. characterized his company's efforts to train seven males and five females to perform sub-assembly work. He emphasized that initially top management must commit itself to such a program, then program objectives must be communicated to supervisors at all levels, and indeed to all employees, so that the entire company feels the need to cooperate in making the program succeed.

The Honeywell program was initiated in response to a request from the Denver NAB, whose retention rate of 75% on local hires since its activities got underway exceeds the national NAB retention rate of 68%. Since Honeywell's plants are located in suburbs which are difficult for Denver's disadvantaged to reach, the company set up a remote training facility near the end of a city bus line. The company's employment needs were assessed, and training was provided for those jobs which the disadvantaged could reasonably be expected to fill. The importance of making trainees aware that they were being prepared for real jobs, not just contrived positions, was emphasized.

Due to the small number of individuals in Honeywell's program, a ratio of one staff person to four trainees was possible. The staff helped the trainees cope with such personal problems as lack of self-confidence, financial destitution, budgeting ignorance, lack of personal discipline, educational deprivation, gambling compulsion, hostility, marital difficulties, and outside activities or circumstances affecting performance in the training situation.

Mr. Johnson, who heads Honeywell's training program, initially involved a local school teacher in the program for the purpose of providing the instruction in basic arithmetic which the trainees needed for job performance. The teacher was available during the summer months, but when the regular school term resumed Honeywell was forced to use its own personnel to provide the remedial instruction.

Trainees spend 4 to 12 weeks at the remote facility before taking a job at one of Honeywell's plants. They learn eye-hand coordination and the manipulative skills needed for proper use of hand tools. As they begin to perform certain facets of sub-assembly work their work is inspected by regular plant inspectors and judged according to the same criteria as are used at the actual job site. Mr. Johnson feels that an important addition to the teaching of skills is a Friday afternoon session in which the trainees review everything they have learned during the week: words, concepts, and techniques.

Mr. Johnson wants each trainee to feel that he is a valuable cog in the wheel of Honeywell operations, so the company's organizational chart is explained, the activities of the company's various divisions are described, and each trainee learns what factors contribute to the making of a profit in the department where he will be employed.

The Honeywell program operates under an MA-3 contract. Its retention rate to date is 75%, and present participants include five Latin Americans, five Negroes, one American Indian, and one Caucasian.

Mr. Dean Lund of the Denver U.S. National Bank described an NAB-initiated program for the hard-core undertaken by his bank and two others in Denver. The three banks employ 2400 persons and they are presently training 25 disadvantaged persons for bank positions. Denver U.S. National Bank is training eight of these, including five females and three males.

The Emily Griffity Opportunity School provided general orientation training for program participants prior to vestibule training by the bank. Trainees were paid at the end of their first day in training so that they would have car fare and lunch money for the following day, but then they were paid weekly. Wages were placed in checking accounts and credit cards were issued to trainees. Unfortunately abuses of these privileges occurred before the trainees fully understood them, so the bank quickly learned that a thorough education in money management was needed before the trainees could be expected to use banking services wisely!

Since each trainee has a different supervisor, the bank maintains a one-to-one trainee-to-staff ratio. Initially trainees were given special consideration in the job situation, but Mr. Lund emphasized that a double standard must not be used any longer than absolutely necessary. Trainees must be made to feel that they are a part of the normal work force, and must carry their fair share of the work load, as soon as possible.

Denver U.S. National Bank has retained seven of eight disadvantaged employees to date and has hired a second group to begin training.

Mr. Robert Loury of King Soopers super market chain described a program conducted by his company for some 25 disadvantaged persons. The Denver Work Opportunity Center was the hiring site for the NAB-initiated program, which is also supported by an MA-3 contract. Normal hiring standards were waived, and medical examinations and treatment were provided at company expense for those hired.

Mr. Loury reiterated the need for a real understanding of such a program on the part of regular company employees. King Soopers sponsored an information session on the program for all employees prior to hiring program participants. First-line supervisors were also given sensitivity training. A booklet prepared in connection with this training for supervisors entitled _Employment of the Disadvantaged_ is now being distributed nationally. Finally, store managers arranged a buddy system for the new employees when they were put on the job.

In the course of the program training in customer assistance and warehousing routine were given the disadvantaged trainees in a remote training facility where they would be free from the distractions provided by real customers. Two company instructors were available to provide job training, needed remedial education, and individual counseling assistance. A local psychiatrist agreed to see some of the trainees who presented particularly serious problems. At the end of 23 weeks the trainees are expected to be able to function effectively in an actual job situation.

King Soopers has managed to retain only 10 of 28 hard-core trainees hired since its program began. The unions have presented particular problems in this connection: trainees who took jobs were compelled to join a union immediately, and the $100 initiation fee and $5/month dues took such a large bite from initial pay checks that some new employees became discouraged and quit. Union seniority rules also made it necessary for the new employees to work the most unpopular shifts and some simply could not work these hours and meet other personal responsibilities. Transportation problems, moves to other cities, and family problems, were other difficulties that caused some persons to quit. Mr. Loury indicated satisfaction with the employees retained, however.

A fourth NAB program financed via an MA-3 contract is under way at Martin Marietta Corporation at its Watertown facility 25 miles southwest of Denver. Mr. W. H. Thompson described the Martin program. The plans call for hiring 44 disadvantaged women in groups of four to fill entry level clerical positions.

The program participants are hired at Denver's East Side Action Center, then given four weeks of skills training followed by 12 weeks of on-the-job training in one of 12 departments within the company (e.g., finance, engineering, quality control, etc.). During the on-the-job training the women attend class for half a day and spend the other half with a female "buddy" who supervises their work within the department to which they are assigned.

Mr. Thompson, a company teacher who is a member of a minority group, and a counselor with a master's degree in psychology are in charge of skills training and education for the women, and they are available to the trainees for counseling and emergency assistance 24 hours a day.

Since the program was initiated 22 women have been hired and 20 are still with the company.

Panel of Representatives of Educational Agencies

The first contributor to the presentation by educational agencies was Mr. James Galloway of the Denver Public Schools. Mr. Galloway believes that educators have neglected their responsibility to solicit total involvement by business and the community in the design of school programs. This failure has given foundation to the charge that education is not realistic for life in present day society.

Mr. Galloway advocates giving children a realistic view of the world of work at an early age. Films, television, and industrial plant tours should be used to acquaint children with the wide variety of jobs and skills that are needed to support our economy. Children from disadvantaged families grow up ignorant of the world of work and thus cannot begin to aspire to a better life. Schools must stop assuming that all students must be prepared to go to college and begin providing exploratory experiences in industry for those who will enter the job market in their late teens. Present job training programs sponsored by private industry and the schools are curative in nature. Preventive measures are long overdue.

Mr. Paul Strong of the regional office of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare outlined the provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act and suggested that this Act be used to forge the link between private industry and the schools in the area of job training for the disadvantaged.

Mr. Charles Tafoya of the Latin American Research and Service Agency, Inc. believes that private industry is still employing racial discrimination and unrealistic educational requirements, such as a high school diploma for an unskilled job, to screen out many potentially productive minority applicants. This practice of screening out, plus a real lack of education and training or obsolescence of skills, are causing unemployment and underemployment to be critical problems for this country.

Mr. Tafoya recommends (1) that immediate legislative action be taken to require that a certain percentage of government jobs be designated as training positions; (2) that validity studies of industry's testing programs be conducted; (3) that studies be undertaken to determine whether or not companies are actually putting into practice their stated policies with regard to equal employment opportunity; (4) that more funds be allocated for cooperative education, institutional training programs, and on-the-job training; and that a comprehensive manpower plan be developed which will assure every person a wage above the poverty level.

Mr. Ruben Valdez, representing Operation SER (Service, Employment, Redevelopment), pointed out that the Mexican-American school dropout rate of 82% in the Denver area is evidence that the schools are failing to meet the needs of the disadvantaged. He suggested that SER's operations, which involve non-degree-holding minority group members as supportive staff for rehabilitation of the hard-core unemployed, might provide a model for training school people and employers to deal with the problems of the disadvantaged.

Mrs. Olga Thalley of the Denver Urban League called attention to the "working poor," those persons who are employed but earn incredibly low wages. She said that 30 to 50% of the black working force could be placed in this category. These people take jobs and then find that they are paying more for food and housing than more privileged middle class workers. It's easy enough to acquire the feeling that it doesn't pay to work. Employment in a low paying job often sends an individual back to the ranks of the unemployed more discouraged and embittered than ever.

Mrs. Thalley called on business to bring hiring criteria into closer alignment with actual job requirements so that under-educated minorities with potential for advancement will not have to remain underemployed all their lives. Disadvantaged employees should be made to feel an important part of a company and should be shown that there is opportunity for them to advance within the organizational structure.

Recommendations from Small Groups

Conference participants were divided into four groups, each composed of representatives of business, the schools, and other community organizations. Each group was asked to consider the following questions:

1. The panel of business and industry representatives has outlined problems of employing, training and retaining the disadvantaged. How can better communications and coordination be established with various governmental agencies, business and industry, and the schools to identify the problems of employment of the disadvantaged?

2. What changes are necessary in business-industry and education to provide job-oriented education that meets the individual needs of the disadvantaged?

3. How can we develop mutual understandings between the employee-employer of employment problems such as attendance, tardiness, and transportation?

4. What kind of programs can be developed through cooperative efforts of business-industry and education to provide the opportunity for each individual to advance in employment according to his capabilities?

The discussion which ensued when the conference was reconvened produced a number of recommendations. With reference to the first discussion topic the conferees concluded that the schools are in serious need of public relations assistance so that their needs and their resources can be made known to industry. On the other hand, industry is not effectively making known its needs in the area of training for its present and prospective employees. Conference participants felt that there should be some continuous means for education and industry to tell each other what is needed and what is available on each side. School boards and CAMPS (Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System) were mentioned as possible agencies through which this communication might take place. But conferees gave preference to the idea of establishing a new committee or clearinghouse to do the job.

In considering the second question conference participants underscored the need for beginning in the elementary grades to provide children with a realistic concept of the world of work. Television, films, and plant tours should be utilized in this connection. Representatives of industry should serve as curriculum consultants for all levels of education in order to keep the schools abreast of changes in occupational requirements. In attempting to meet the individual needs of the disadvantaged industry has another change to effect: hiring criteria should be brought into line with actual job requirements so that the disadvantaged will not be screened out of jobs which they have the ability to perform.

Conferees offered several suggestions for improving mutual understanding between the disadvantaged and their employers. These included (1) selecting as immediate supervisors company staff who are sincerely interested in, and capable of understanding the problems of, the disadvantaged; (2) providing sensitivity training for these individuals; and (3) providing individual counseling assistance for disadvantaged employees.

Work-study programs were considered by conference participants to be one of the most effective examples of industry-school cooperation to aid the disadvantaged in achieving maximum development of their capabilities. Another means of attaining the objective of full utilization of potential involves school cooperation with industry for the purpose of placing students in permanent jobs upon completion of school courses. Conferees felt that educators had neglected the areas of placement and follow-up of graduates and dropouts.

The conference audience requested that a listing of those in attendance at the meeting be mailed to all participants so that contacts made at the meeting could be furthered. Hope was expressed that the interchange of ideas between all segments of the community interested in the disadvantaged which was begun at the conference would be continued in follow-up meetings.

New York Seminar

Initial Planning

In November Mr. Murray Safran of the Franklin Improvement Program Committee (FIPC), a citizen's group in Harlem, invited the project directors to hold the third dissemination seminar at Benjamin Franklin High School (BFHS) in New York.

The FIPC is a school-community-university committee formed in September 1966 for the purpose of bringing to bear all the resources of the Harlem community, including Teachers College of Columbia University, on a program of improvement for Benjamin Franklin High School. Franklin is a school populated almost entirely by black and Puerto Rican students and the dropout rate exceeds 60%. Sixty-five per cent of the students now take a general academic course which the FIPC considers "relatively meaningless." Therefore, wheels are being set in motion to turn Franklin into a comprehensive high school.

FIPC members feel that the visible and tangible presence of business and industry in a new comprehensive high school would provide the new motivation which would keep the Franklin students interested in school and thus lower the dropout rate there. For this reason the FIPC has become interested in the information collected in this study on cooperative efforts of private industry and the schools to provide job-oriented education for the disadvantaged. In fact, prior to learning of this project the FIPC had obtained funds from the New York Urban Coalition for the purpose of investigating some of the very programs included in our survey. When our resources became available FIPC members decided that a significant part of the initial work needed to involve private industry in the affairs of BFHS could be accomplished by having our staff conduct a seminar in Harlem similar to the ones conducted in Knoxville and Denver.

March 27 was the date established for the seminar at BFHS. Arrangements at the school and invitations to FIPC members to attend the meeting and to participate in the program were handled by Mr. Safran. The New York Urban Coalition assumed responsibility for inviting interested businessmen. Project staff made arrangements for attendance at the meeting by consultants from three exemplary programs which appeared to have direct implications for program planning at BFHS.

The Conference Program

Due to the focus on one particular school as opposed to a city-wide approach, the New York seminar was less formally structured than the Knoxville and Denver programs. The program agenda appears in Appendix B. In the opening session the audience heard from FIPC members an explanation of the goals of the organization with respect to curriculum planning for BFHS and the role which FIPC believes private industry can play in achieving these goals. Following a break for coffee consultants from three exemplary cooperative programs described the working relationships which exist between the schools and private industry in each of these programs. The afternoon was devoted to workshops in which FIPC members and industry representatives discussed possible areas of cooperation for the Franklin setting. The consultants were available to each of the workshop groups for the purpose of answering questions about their own programs and offering suggestions which might be implemented at BFHS.

Registration for the meeting took place in the school library from 9 to 9:30 a.m. The seminar program began at 9:30 and the afternoon workshop sessions were concluded with a summary at 4:30 p.m. A total of 62 persons attended the seminar with approximately one-third of the participants representing private industry, one-third the school, and one-third the community.

Opening Statements by Representatives of FIPC and BFHS

Mrs. Margaret Harris, FIPC Chairman, presided at the meeting. Mrs. Harris opened the first session with a brief history of FIPC. The organization's first major accomplishment was the planning of a cluster program using funds available under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. The planning of the comprehensive high school curriculum is the FIPC's next concern. In this endeavor the group is looking to local business and industry for consultative and financial assistance.

Estaban Seaton, a senior in the "general" course of study at Franklin, spoke briefly about the failure of the general curriculum to prepare a student for life outside the school. This track provides preparation neither for college nor for the world of work. Estaban called on business to help make education at BFHS more meaningful by contributing up-to-date equipment for skills training in the school and by making part-time jobs available to students.

Karen Davis, a student in the "academic" track at Franklin, pointed out that "academic" students are taking science, mathematics, and English courses in preparation for college entrance, yet few graduates can pass the New York Regents' examinations and very few go on to college. Karen believes that academic students at Franklin should have an opportunity to acquire a saleable skill in addition to their preparation for college.

Mr. Leonard F. Littwin, principal at BFHS, described the present three-track system in operation at the school. The academic curriculum supposedly sends graduates on to college, the commercial track sends students into jobs in business, and the general course is designed to give students the basic skills that will enable them to choose between a variety of alternatives for further development beyond high school. In reality, however, students finishing the general course are not qualified for jobs or for further schooling. Initially approximately two-thirds of the Franklin student body elects to follow the general course, but seeing no future for themselves with a general diploma, most drop out before graduation. BFHS is a four-year high school and for every 1000 entering ninth graders, 650 will leave Franklin prior to graduation.

Mr. Littwin believes that schools either should prepare a student for college entrance or equip him with a saleable skill, but the academic high schools and the vocational schools in New York City are doing neither. In both cases students are being taught with obsolete equipment for outdated jobs.

Mr. Littwin believes the best solution for the current problem is the comprehensive high school, with academic, commercial, and occupational tracks, but embodying a new flexibility that will enable students to combine the best features of each track to fit their own needs. Thus the college-bound student would be enabled to acquire a job skill if he elected to do so.

For too long teachers and counselors have been making students feel that college was the only worth-while goal for high school students to consider. Students for whom college is not a realistic goal thus feel frustrated and tend to drop out of high school. Parents in the East Harlem area have finally decided to band together to argue in favor of a school curriculum for their children which will prepare them for alternatives they can logically expect to pursue upon graduation. According to Mr. Littwin, this is FIPC's reason for being, and the comprehensive high school appears to be the most promising plan for accomplishing the group's objectives.

The New York Urban Coalition has committed approximately $36,000 to the FIPC for the planning phase of the comprehensive high school project. Two Franklin teachers and four other FIPC members will be given leaves of absence from their current jobs for five months in order to devote full time to developing the plan. Both school and community will be closely involved in the planning, and final approval will rest with the New York City Board of Education.

Mr. Littwin called attention to the role of the seminar in the plan for the school. Business and industry rely heavily on effective company training programs for competent employees. Perhaps suggestions from industry representatives with experience in training could be built into the comprehensive high school plan. Certainly business can contribute ideas regarding the kinds of training which the school can provide in order to produce the kind of job applicant business wants and needs. If industry can assume a visible role in the school's affairs then students will begin to feel that the school really is in contact with the outside world and their education may begin to take on more meaning for them.

Mrs. Ruth Atkins, a parent and member of FIPC, challenged private industry to help FIPC convert the curriculum at Franklin to a job-oriented one and thus combat the phenomenal dropout rate. Mrs. Atkins emphasized that members of the black community had always found it very difficult to get jobs, but parents of children enrolled at BFHS were still hopeful that their children would find more employment doors open to them than had their parents. Only the business community can make this hope a reality.

Following the presentations by the speakers Mr. Littwin asked for questions from the audience. One of the businessmen present asked for statistics on the enrollment at BFHS. Mr. Littwin said that there are 3200 students, approximately 48% of whom are black, 48% Puerto Rican, and 4% Oriental or white. An overlap session is being used because the school's capacity is 2500.

Another question concerned the number of students taking the general course. Mr. Littwin said that 2000 students are enrolled in the general curriculum. The Upward Bound program is helping to prepare about 450 of the most able students for college; a special Regents' program is providing special assistance to other students who have above average ability but do not plan to go on to college; and the students in the commercial track are receiving employability training; but there is no special help and no real future for students in the general track.

Exemplary Cooperative Programs

Following a break for coffee in the BFHS cafeteria Mrs. Margaret Harris introduced one of the project directors who described the interpretive study and the involvement of project staff in the Franklin seminar and introduced the consultants.

Chrysler program of assistance to Northwestern High School in Detroit. The Chrysler Corporation was represented by Mr. Owen E. Fraser, Administrator, Program of Assistance to Public Schools. When contacted about attendance at the seminar Mr. Fraser suggested that the principal of Northwestern, Dr. Melvin Chapman, be invited also to represent the school's point of view in the program. This was done, and Dr. Chapman spoke first at the seminar.

Northwestern is an all black high school located in the riot area of Detroit. The participation by Chrysler's Chairman of the Board of Directors in the activities of the New Detroit Committee convinced him that industry must demonstrate its good faith in community welfare by exercising its social responsibility to improve education in the city's ghetto schools. Northwestern was chosen for special attention from Chrysler.

Northwestern's administration was skeptical of Chrysler's first specific offer of assistance and rejected it as a bid for some inexpensive publicity. Chrysler was determined to convince the administration of its sincerity, however, and ultimately was successful. But the school insisted that any program of assistance would be planned by the school. Northwestern wants Chrysler's help in areas where the school cannot help itself. The school's teachers and administrators write proposals requesting aid for a particular item or endeavor and Chrysler either accepts or rejects the proposal.

Northwestern's first request was guaranteed placement for all graduates. This was a difficult assignment, but Chrysler moved to meet it by renovating a wing of the school and setting up a placement office where Chrysler personnel could test and interview all graduates. Chrysler was able to place over half of Northwestern's June 1968 graduating class.

In the course of testing and interviewing graduates Chrysler discovered certain weaknesses that indicated the need for curriculum changes. This information was fed back to Northwestern's faculty along with suggestions for change. The school began to offer general orientation to job-seeking, with emphasis on how to complete an application. Chrysler provided the school with key punch and data processing equipment and electric typewriters so that students could receive more realistic training for office work. Using the new computer the students are now accomplishing their own class scheduling.

Placement of male graduates was particularly difficult, so Chrysler converted part of the Northwestern plant to a modern shop for training auto mechanics. Chrysler personnel designed the curriculum. A three-year program is planned which will produce students who are employable upon graduation.

A special summer program in auto shop training and language arts was established at Chrysler in June 1968 for 94 potential dropouts from Northwestern. The boys were paid $5 a day for participating in the program and 88 of them finished the training. During the regular school year Boron Oil provided part-time jobs for the same students.

Boron Oil is now financing a program in which Wayne State University reading specialists will teach Northwestern teachers to teach reading in their own classes, whether the class is in English or in mathematics. Many Northwestern graduates have evidenced serious reading weaknesses.

Chrysler has furnished Northwestern with a library of paperbacks by and about blacks which is awakening new reading interest among Northwestern students.

Dr. Chapman closed by reiterating the fact that Chrysler does not tell Northwestern what the company is going to do for the school. On the contrary, the school faculty decides how Chrysler can help, then submits a proposal to the company for approval. This procedure brings teachers and administrators together to formulate goals and means for achieving them, and this is as healthy for the school as is Chrysler's direct assistance.

Mr. Fraser continued the program description with Chrysler's point of view on the working relationship. He said that Chrysler had been sincere in its intention to be of help to Northwestern from the beginning, but the company realizes that its initial approach appeared paternalistic and company personnel find the present arrangement most satisfactory.

Mr. Fraser said that community involvement in school affairs is being encouraged and Chrysler is helping by making the new data processing center available to adults in the evenings, setting up a reading clinic for adults in the neighborhood, and establishing a school for dropouts across the street from Northwestern.

Chrysler's aim is to channel those students without a marketable skill into a program which will enable them to pick up this skill. The auto shop is set up to prepare graduates for immediate employment. A "secretary-for-a-day" program is carried on with Northwestern secretarial students spending a day in a real job at Chrysler under the close supervision of a Chrysler employee. This concept may be extended to other occupational areas. Chrysler is continually soliciting involvement of other companies in similar programs of assistance.

Work-study program at First Pennsylvania Bank in Philadelphia. Mr. J. Lester Blocker, Assistant Vice-President of the First Pennsylvania Bank, outlined briefly the Business Experience and Education Program (BEEP) which he started in Philadelphia. Mr. Blocker was a stock broker early in his career but he realized that making money would not guarantee his acceptance as a person by the white community, so he set out to work for the acceptance of all blacks by initiating programs of equal opportunity for them in the business world. Under Mr. Blocker's leadership First Pennsylvania Bank and a number of other Philadelphia firms give black high school students who might otherwise drop out part-time jobs and related counseling and instruction.

At the bank Mr. Blocker's BEEP boys spend four afternoons each week learning jobs in the various departments of the bank. They are encouraged to do well in their school work while on the job, and if they do not report to school they may not work at the bank that day. On Friday the boys are pulled together for general orientation, counseling sessions, instruction from bank personnel on various banking functions as well as sound management of personal finances, and just talk. Mr. Blocker considers the Friday afternoon meetings the heart of the BEEP concept.

Mr. Blocker then talked about "diseducation," the idea that many minority youngsters were coming up through 12 years in ghetto schools and graduating with less preparation for life outside the school than they had at the beginning. He believes that programs such as BEEP are important at present to help those who would not otherwise be able to make it, but programs are stop-gap measures. We must plan systems that will put education in the '70's on a firm foundation and stop the diseducating that is going on today.

Unless systemic change takes place, more and more youngsters will fail to complete their schooling because they can see that the curriculum is not relevant for the future. Mr. Blocker feels that children should experience exposure to the world of work very early in the educational process. In the third grade students should spend six weeks experiencing a broad spectrum of occupational possibilities by talking with people who perform such jobs. In the sixth grade this exposure should be repeated in order to allow initial impressions to be reinforced or repudiated. In the ninth year real occupational experience can begin. This process should allow students to gain first-hand knowledge of the world of work and to begin to see the relevance of their educational experiences to the job they will ultimately perform. Above all, the idea that every child must go to college must disappear from the system so that each individual may feel the satisfaction that accompanies doing what he wants to do and what he does best.

The Downey World of Work Program. Mr. Arthur d'Braunstein, Training Specialist in the Manpower Development Department at North American Rockwell in Downey, California, described Downey's World of Work Program as an educational system involving the total community in discovering and developing each student's talent for the world of work. North American Rockwell is assisting the Downey Unified School District in carrying on the program by providing consultative assistance, specialists to teach courses where needed, equipment for student shops within the school, and instructional materials that will make learning as closely related to the actual job situation as possible.

The Downey Unified School District has replaced the traditional practical arts departments of agriculture, business education, home economics, and industrial education with a new program embodying the elements of designing (the creative planning of procedures, products and/or services), marketing (processing data in finding, controlling and distributing designs, products and/or services), manufacturing (changing materials to make quantities of useful products), and servicing (taking care of living things or maintaining products). These four elements represent the major functions of business and industry. Each element is dependent on one or more of the others in order that all may operate effectively.

At the junior high school level the World of Work Program began in the fall of 1968 with the opening of a Servicing Center in the industrial education department of one of the Downey junior high schools. Learning activities in the Servicing Center follow three tracks: the servicing of mechanical devices (bicycles, small engines, mowers, etc.), electrical systems (wiring and repair), and buildings (cleaning, painting, and plumbing). Initially students cover all three tracks for general and exploratory learnings. As a student discovers an area for which he has both talent and interest, he is allowed to specialize and may continue in the vocational education program in the high schools.

Mr. d'Braunstein used slides to portray classroom activities connected with the World of Work Program. Students begin the occupational exploration program by working with bicycles, mowers, and other familiar devices.

They learn to repair and maintain this equipment, then move to more complex devices. The students operate the Downey Thrift Shop, repairing malfunctioning and broken household appliances that have been donated by parents and friends then selling these at a profit.

Students studying typewriting learn to type using forms they can expect to encounter in the business world. These forms are supplied by industry. Other students studying food services operate the school cafeteria, preparing and serving the food and maintaining the cafeteria facilities. The chairs and tables in the cafeteria and some of the shop areas were built by students interested in carpentry and cabinetmaking.

The Downey World of Work Program gives students an opportunity to explore, and actually participate in, the world of work while they are in junior high school. Mr. d'Braunstein expressed North American Rockwell's satisfaction in being involved in a program which is giving every participant a marketable skill.

Workshop Sessions

Plans called for dividing seminar participants into three groups, each involving a consultant from an exemplary cooperative program. One consultant was unable to spend the afternoon in New York, however, so two groups were formed. Discussion in both groups centered around the subject of what private industry and the schools have to offer each other, and how they can begin to work together more effectively.

Perhaps the most important accomplishment of the day was the bringing together of businessmen and school personnel for a frank discussion of opinions each group has held of the other. Business has considered school personnel incompetent because the school graduates and dropouts coming to business for jobs have been so poorly prepared. Moreover, businessmen have received the impression that school people were so closely bound to traditional ways of doing things that they would not listen to suggestions for change. School personnel, on the other hand, have assumed that business has no real concern about what goes on in the schools since they have their own training programs that presumably remedy any employee deficiencies for which the schools may be responsible. The seminar workshops gave both businessmen and school personnel an opportunity to discover that they share a common concern for what is being accomplished in the schools and how this can be improved.

Equal employment opportunity for minorities in New York City is still a goal that is far from being achieved, and this state of affairs is a stumbling block for industry-school cooperation at Benjamin Franklin. Those companies represented at the seminar whose top management is already committed to a minority hiring program evidenced much more confidence in the companies' abilities to begin cooperative programs in the near future than did the companies where such commitment is lacking.

Assessment

Before the end of the New York seminar one company had made a commitment to the FIPC to enter into a cooperative program with the school. The details of the program were to be worked out at a later date. Representatives of other companies indicated interest in becoming involved, but they needed to consult company supervisors before making a definite commitment. Apparently such decisions can only be made by top management, and this echelon of authority cannot find the time to spend the day at a seminar of this type. Only in Detroit, where rioting in the ghetto threatened the entire economic structure of the city, has top management become involved in planning sessions which eventually led to massive programs of assistance to public schools.

More groundwork for definite action was laid at the New York seminar, however, than at either of the other meetings connected with this project. Apparently when attention is focused on the needs of a single school the school personnel at the seminar have a vested interest in the outcome of the meeting, and businessmen are confronted with specific problems to which their efforts can be addressed. The sense of urgency for immediate action was much greater at the New York seminar than at either of the city-wide meetings. Further evidence is needed because the presence on the BFHS scene of the FIPC may have made the Franklin situation atypical, but on the basis of the three trial seminars held in connection with this project, the one-school approach appears to hold the most promise for future dissemination efforts.

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REFERENCES

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APPENDIX A

Survey Instruments

The following consultants were called upon to review, and make suggestions for revision of, school and company questionnaires:

Consultants for School Questionnaire:

Dr. Everett Edington, Director, ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Las Cruces, New Mexico.

Mrs. Joan Chatman, Double E Program, Chicago Public Schools.

Dr. Larry Hughes, Professor of Educational Administration and Supervision, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Consultants for Company Questionnaire:

Dr. Gerald Whitlock, Professor of Organizational Psychology, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Dr. Louis Dotson, Professor of Sociology, Universitv of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Mr. Charles Kuykendall, Manager of Recruiting and Central Employment, Union Carbide Nuclear Division, Oak Ridge, Tennessee.

School Report
On A
Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Program For The Disadvantaged

Return this Questionnaire to: Dr. Trudy Banta
909 Mountcastle St.
Knoxville, Tenn. 37916
Ph 615 974-3338

SCHOOL REPORT
ON A
COOPERATIVE JOB-ORIENTED EDUCATION PROGRAM
FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

Name of School (or System) Involved in Program ____________________

____

Prepared by ____________________

Title ____________________

Address ____________________ (STREET & NUMBER) ____________________ (CITY)

____________________ (STATE) ____________________ (ZIP CODE)

Telephone ____________________

Total number of students in participating school(s) ____________________

- - - - - - - - - - - - -

Name of Cooperating Company ____________________
(If more than one is involved. please include the name and address of one *major* company and list a few of the other companies cooperating in the program)

____

____

Contact person ____________________

Title ____________________

Address ____________________ (STREET & NUMBER) ____________________ (CITY)

____________________ (STATE) ____________________ (ZIP CODE)

Telephone ____________________

Population of city in which program is conducted ____________________

Please answer all questions which apply to your program. If for some reason you prefer that certain responses be held confidential, please place a "C" in the margin by such items. These responses will not be associated with the school name but will be used only in compiling the over-all summary. Where the space provided is insufficient for an adequate response, please attach additional sheets.

I. Identification

Please name and describe briefly the nature of the program of job-oriented education for the DISADVANTAGED which your school (or school system) and private industry are cooperating to provide (e.g., involving company personnel as vocational curriculum advisers, providing basic education for disadvantaged company employees, etc.). Please complete a separate form for each program if your school is involved in more than one.

____

____

____

____

____

____

II. Program Organization

A. Initiation

1. Was the idea for this program originated by
   - a. ( ) School
   - b. ( ) Private Industry
   - c. ( ) Other (please specify) ____________________

   If the idea originated with the school, how was industry cooperation secured, (i.e., how did you "sell" the program; at what administrative level was contact made, etc.)?

   ____

   ____

   ____

   ____

   ____

2. What factors led to the initiation of this program (e.g., need for reducing turnover among company employees in low-paying positions, need to make vocational training more realistic, etc.)?

   ____

   ____

   ____

   ____

B. Sponsorship

1. Please specify type of industry involvement in your program:
   - a. ( ) Single Company (Principal Industry)____________________
   - b. ( ) Single Industry (Principal Activity)____________________
   - c. ( ) Multi-Industry (Principal Industries)____________________

   (If more than one company is involved, state total number.)____________________

2. Please place a check in the columns which indicate the level(s) and number(s) of schools involved in your program.

	One School	More Than One School	Entire School System
a. Elementary			
b. Secondary			
c. Post-secondary (Vo-Tech)			
d. Junior college			
e. 4-year college or university			
f. Adult basic education			

3. In addition to the public schools other agencies involved in your program are:
   - a. ( ) Federal Anti-poverty Agency
   - b. ( ) Welfare Department
   - c. ( ) State Employment Agency
   - d. ( ) National Alliance of Businessmen
   - e. ( ) Urban League
   - f. ( ) Urban Coalition
   - g. ( ) Industry-Education Council
   - h. ( ) Other (specify)__________

C. Financial Support

1. Please indicate the sources of funds for your program. (If funds come from more than one source, please specify approximate percentage of sponsorship in appropriate column).

	Percentage	
a. Company	________	
b. Schools	________	
c. Foundation	________	
d. Government		
Local	________	
State	________	
Federal	________	
e. Other (specify)	________	____________________

2. If federal funds are used, from what agency(s) and under what act(s) or program(s) are the funds available?

____

____

D. Program Description

1. Where is the program conducted: (Check all appropriate spaces)
   - a. ( ) On regular company premises
   - b. ( ) In special company facilities
   - c. ( ) On school premises
   - d. ( ) In facilities located in target neighborhood (other than school premises)
   - e. ( ) Other (specify)____

   ____

2. Please check the extent (major, minor, none) to which each program area listed below is performed by company staff, school staff, and by other agencies. If any program area is performed in a unique manner, please explain in space provided at end of questionnaire.

	Company			**School**			**Other Agency (specify)**		
Program Areas	**Major**	**Minor**	**None**	**Major**	**Minor**	**None**	**Major**	**Minor**	**None**
a. Occupational information service (e.g., career conference speaker or other advisory capacity)									
b. Provision of equipment or other materials for school use									
c. Recruitment									
d. Screening									
e. Selection									
f. Placement for training experience									
g. On-the-job training (Training conducted during job performance)									
h. Related on-site classroom instruction									
i. Retraining (where skills have become obsolete)									
j. Upgrading company employees									
k. Personal orientation (e.g., grooming, punctuality, etc.)									
l. Literacy training (for non-English-speaking people)									
m. Basic education (communications skills, basic arithmetic, etc.)									
n. Regular academic classroom instruction									
o. Vocational instruction on school premises									
p. Pre-apprenticeship training									
q. Final job placement of program participants									
r. Follow-up of program participants									
s. Other (specify)									

Please indicate by letter (a,b,c,etc.), in order of importance, the primary program areas performed by

School ______________________________

Company ______________________________

Other agencies ______________________________

NOTE: If your program does not involve work experience for the disadvantaged, please turn to page 11, Section V, answer questions A and B, and return questionnaire.

III. Program Operation

A. Is program designed for:

1. ( ) Employees in the cooperating company
2. ( ) Improving employability of prospective employees (includes full-time students)
3. ( ) Part-time students (employed part-time by company)
4. ( ) Other (specify)________________________________

B. During a normal training cycle what is the average number of participants involved in your program?____________

For this number please complete the following:

Job Title	Number of Participants		Length of Training Cycle in Weeks
	Male	Female	

C. Are participants paid while in the program?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, what percentage of participants' pay comes from:

1. Employer ____________
2. Government
   Local ____________
   State ____________
   Federal ____________
3. Other (Specify)______________________________

____

100%

D. Program Staff

1. How many school personnel are utilized in the program as

	Full-time	Part-time
a. Instructors of basic education (communications skills, basic arithmetic, etc.)		
b. Instructors of regular academic subjects		
c. Instructors of vocational subjects		
d. Counselors		
e. Administrators		
f. Social workers		
g. Other (specify)____________		

2. Is one school staff member designated as the liaison between company and school for this program?

( ) Yes ( ) No

3. How many company personnel are utilized in the program? ____________________

4. Is an advisory committee used for this program?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, how was membership on the committee determined? ____________________

____

____

____

E. School Staff Training

Was school staff given any special training or orientation prior to or during this program?

( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, please specify types of training or orientation and the types of staff involved (vocational teacher, counselor, etc.) and duration of each type of training. In the fourth column below indicate whether the training was/is conducted by school personnel, company personnel, or outside agency or institution (specify).

Type of Training	Staff Involved	Duration of Training in weeks	Conducted By
1.			
2.			
3.			

F. Selection for the Program

1. Is student (or employee) participation in this program:
    - a. ( ) Open to all who volunteer
    - b. ( ) Open only to applicants selected via initial screening processes
    - c. ( ) Required of all students in a given curriculum (specify curriculum)____________________
    - d. ( ) Required of all employees in a given position
    - e. ( ) Other (specify)____________________

2. If screening is involved, please specify methods by which program participants are selected.

____

____

____

G. Counseling

1. Do participants receive general counseling on an individual basis?

    ( ) Yes ( ) No

2. What percentage of participants need:
    - a. Occasional psychological counseling____________________
    - b. Intensive psychological counseling____________________
    - c. Referral to other agencies for psychological help________________

3. If participants receive individual counseling, for each area of concern listed below, please check the extent (major, minor, none) of the counseling function which is performed by school staff, by company staff, or by other agency.

Area of Concern	School			Company			Other Agency (Specify)		
	Major	Minor	None	Major	Minor	None	Major	Minor	None
1. Career planning									
2. Academic planning									
3. Academic difficulties									
4. Job performance problems									
5. Health problems									
6. Psychological problems (e.g., social adjustment, symptoms of mental illness, etc.)									

H. On the average, how many hours per day do program participants spend

1. On the job____________________
2. In the classroom____________________

I. Cooperation with industry may require changes in school teaching methods and practices, course content, curriculum development, and/or counseling practices. In your opinion, what is the most significant change which cooperation with industry is this program has made in what the school is doing?

____

____

____

____

IV. Population Involved

A. In a typical program cycle approximately how many participants are:

1. White ____
2. Negro ____
3. Puerto Rican ____
4. American Indian ____
5. Mexican-American ____
6. Oriental ____
7. Other ____
   (Specify) ____

B. In a typical program cycle, approximately how many participants are within each of the following age groups:

	Male	**Female**
1. Under 18		
2. 18 to 25		
3. 25 to 40		
4. 40 and over		

C. Is your program primarily for.

1. ( ) Inner-city residents
2. ( ) Rural residents
3. ( ) Migrant workers
4. ( ) Other (specify) ____

D. In conducting this program has the school sought out disadvantaged individuals not ordinarily served by the school? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, please explain. ____

____

____

E. Problems Encountered

1. What special problems have school staff members encountered in working with this program, and how have these problems been met?

Problem	**How Problem Has Been Met**
a. ____	a. ____ ____ ____
b. ____	b. ____ ____ ____
c. ____	c. ____ ____ ____

2. What special problems have the disadvantaged encountered in participating in this program, and how have these been met?

Problem	How Problem Has Been Met
a.	a.
b.	b.
c.	c.

V. Program Assessment

A. How long has your program been in operation?

B. Do you expect the program to be continued? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If no, why not?

C. Current status of those who have *completed* the program:

1. How many individuals have completed the program since it began?
2. What percentage is this of the total number who have entered the program?

D. Has conducting this program had any significant effect on your school's dropout rate?
( ) Yes ( ) No ( ) Don't know

If yes, cite figures to support this statement.

E. What do you consider to be the biggest problem encountered by the school in setting up or operating this program?

F. What do you consider the most outstanding positive factor or benefit to the school which has resulted from cooperation with industry in this program?

____

____

____

____

G. What do you consider the most serious negative factor or disadvantage which has resulted from cooperation with industry in this program?

____

____

____

____

Please enclose any additional descriptive materials on this program which may be available.

Company Report
On A
Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Program
For The Disadvantaged

Return this Questionnaire to: Dr. Trudy Banta
909 Mountcastle St.
Knoxville, Tenn. 37916

COMPANY REPORT
ON A
COOPERATIVE JOB-ORIENTED EDUCATION PROGRAM
FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

Company or Corporation Name ______________________________

Division(s) involved in program (if applicable) ______________________________

____

Principal activity of division(s) conducting program ______________________________

____

Address ______________________________ ______________________________
(STREET & NUMBER) (CITY)

______________________________ ______________
(STATE) (ZIP CODE)

Total number of employees at the installation conducting the program ______________

Prepared by ______________________________

Title ______________________________

Telephone ______________

Name of Cooperating School (or School System) ______________________________

____

Address ______________________________ ______________________________
(STREET & NUMBER) (CITY)

______________________________ ______________
(STATE) (ZIP CODE)

Contact person ______________________________

Title ______________________________

Telephone ______________

Population of city in which program is conducted ______________________________

Please answer all questions which apply to your program. If for some reason you prefer that certain responses be held confidential, please place a "C" in the margin by such items. These responses will not be associated with the company name but will be used only in compiling the over-all summary. Where the space provided is insufficient for an adequate response, please attach additional sheets.

I. Identification

A. Please name and describe briefly the nature of the program of job-oriented education and training for the disadvantaged which your company and the public schools are cooperating to provide (e.g., providing consultants and/or equipment for a school-operated vocational education program for potential dropouts, providing basic education and job training for the hard-core, or conducting any other program designed to enhance the employability of some segment of the disadvantaged population). Please fill out a separate form for each program if your company is involved in more than one.

____

____

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____

II. Program Organization

A. Initiation

1. Was the idea for this program originated by
   - a. ( ) Your company
   - b. ( ) The cooperating school (or school system)
   - c. ( ) Other (please specify)______________________________

____

2. What factors led to the initiation of this program (e.g., need for reducing turn-over among company employees in low-paying positions, need to make vocational training more realistic, etc.)?

____

____

____

____

B. Sponsorship

1. Please specify type of industry involvement in your program:
   - a. ( ) Single Company (Principal Industry)______________________________
   - b. ( ) Single Industry (Principal Activity)______________________________
   - c. ( ) Multi-Industry (Principal Industries)______________________________

(If more than one company is involved, state total number).______________________________

2. Please place a check in the columns which indicate the level(s) and number(s) of schools involved in your program.

	One School	More Than One School	Entire School System
a. Elementary			
b. Secondary			
c. Post-secondary (Vo -Tech)			
d. Junior college			
e. 4-year college or university			
f. Adult basic education			

3. In addition to the public schools other agencies involved in your program are:
   a. ( ) Federal Anti-poverty Agency
   b. ( ) Welfare Department
   c. ( ) State Employment Agency
   d. ( ) National Alliance of Businessmen
   e. ( ) Urban League
   f. ( ) Urban Coalition
   g. ( ) Industry-Education Council
   h. ( ) Other (specify)____

   ____

C. Financial Support

1. Please indicate the sources of funds for your program. (If funds come from more than one source, please specify approximate percentage of sponsorship in appropriate column).

	Percentage	
a. Company	__________	
b. Schools	__________	
c. Government	__________	
Local	__________	
State	__________	
Federal	__________	
d. Foundation	__________	
e. Other (specify)	__________	____________________

2. If federal funds are used, from what agency(s) and under what act(s) or program(s) are the funds available?

   ____

   ____

D. Program Description

1. Where is the program conducted: (Check all appropriate spaces)
   a. ( ) On regular company premises
   b. ( ) In special company facilities
   c. ( ) On school premises
   d. ( ) In facilities located in target neighborhood (other than school premises)
   e. ( ) Other (please specify)____

   ____

2. Please check the extent (major, minor, none) to which each program area listed below is performed by company staff, school staff, and by other agencies. If any program area is performed in a unique manner, please explain in space provided at end of questionnaire.

	Program Areas	Company			School			Other Agency (Specify)		
		Major	Minor	None	Major	Minor	None	Major	Minor	None
a.	Occupational information service (e.g., career conference speaker or other advisory capacity)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
b.	Provision of equipment or other materials for school use.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
c.	Recruitment	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
d.	Screening	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
e.	Selection	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
f.	Placement for training experience	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
g.	On-the-job training (Training conducted during job performance)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
h.	Vestibule training	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
i.	Related on-site classroom instruction	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
j.	Re-training (where skills have become obsolete)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
k.	Upgrading company employees	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
l.	General orientation training (e.g., grooming, punctuality, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
m.	Literacy training for non-English-speaking people	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
n.	Basic education (communications skills, basic arithmetic, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
o.	Vocational instruction on school premises	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
p.	Regular academic classroom instruction (i.e., beyond literacy training)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
q.	Pre-apprenticeship training	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
r.	Final job placement of program participants	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
s.	Follow-up of program participants	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
t.	Other (specify)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

Please indicate by letter (a,b,c,etc.), in order of importance, the primary program areas performed by

School ______________________________

Company ______________________________

Other agencies ______________________________

NOTE: If your program does not involve industrial training for the disadvantaged, please turn to page 10, Section V, answer questions A and B, and return questionnaire.

III. Program Operation

A. Is program designed for:
  1. ( ) Employees in your company
  2. ( ) Improving employability of prospective employees (includes full-time students)
  3. ( ) Part-time students (employed part-time by company)
  4. ( ) Other (specify)____

B. During a normal training cycle what is the average number of participants involved in your program? ____________ For this number please complete the following:

Job Title	Number of Participants Male	 Female	Length of Training Cycle in Weeks

C. Were the above jobs available originally as opposed to requiring special design for this program? ( ) Yes ( ) No If no, how have job specifications or job qualifications been changed for the purpose of the program?

____

____

____

D. Reimbursement
  1. Are participants paid while in the program? ( ) Yes ( ) No
     If yes, what percentage of participants' pay comes from
     a. Employer __________
     b. Government __________
        Local __________
        State __________
        Federal __________
     c. Other __________ (Specify source)____________________
        100%
  2. What methods of reimbursement are used (i.e., is participant paid on basis of productivity, incentives, hours worked, or other factors)?

____

____

____

E. Program Staff
  1. How many company personnel are utilized in the program?
     a. Full-time ________ b. Part-time ________
  2. What is the approximate ratio of participants to staff?____________________
  3. Is one company staff member designated as the liaison between company and school for this program? ( ) Yes ( ) No
  4. How many non-professional aides from the target population are employed on the program staff and in what capacity?____

____

5. How many school personnel are utilized in the program? ____________

6. Is an advisory committee used for this program? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, how was membership on the committee determined? ____________________

____

____

____

F. Company Staff Training

1. Was company staff given any special training or orientation prior to or during the training program? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, how long did it last? ____________

2. Nature of staff training (Check as many as apply)

a. ( ) General orientation b. ( ) Attitudinal or sensitivity training

c. ( ) Other (specify) ____________________

____

3. What elements of company staff were given training? (Check as many as apply)

a. ( ) Personnel department

b. ( ) Other middle management personnel

c. ( ) First-line supervisors

d. ( ) Fellow employees

4. Who conducted training of company staff?

a. ( ) Members of training department b. ( ) Other company personnel

c. ( ) Outside firm, agency, or institution (specify) ____________________

____

G. Union Participation

1. To what extent have unions participated in planning or operating the program?

( ) Extensively ( ) Somewhat ( ) Not at all

2. Do you recommend involving the union in the planning and conducting of such programs?

( ) Yes ( ) No If yes, at what stage do you feel the union should be involved?

____

____

____

H. Recruitment

Check methods by which disadvantaged individuals were recruited or obtained for your program.

a. ( ) Direct mailing

b. ( ) Applicant backlog

c. ( ) Through the schools

d. ( ) Newspaper advertising

e. ( ) Radio and TV advertising

f. ( ) Company recruitment in target neighborhoods

g. ( ) Employee referrals

h. ( ) Private employment agencies

i. ( ) Public or semi-public employment agencies

j. ( ) Other (specify) ____________________

____

I. Screening

1. If screening methods for the program differ from usual procedures, please explain differences

____

____

J. Counseling

1. Do participants receive individual counseling attention? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, is counseling offered on a regular basis? ( ) Yes ( ) No

2. Is counseling concerned with problems other than those encountered in job performance (explain)____
____
____

3. Does counseling continue after training? ( ) Yes ( ) No
If yes, please specify number of months__________
4. Is there a buddy system? ( ) Yes ( ) No
If yes, briefly describe the system____________________________________
____
____

K. On the average, how many hours per day do program participants spend
1. On the job____________ 2. In the classroom____________

L. What percentage of trainees who complete the program do you expect to employ or retain in your company?____________________________________

IV. Population Involved

A. In a typical program cycle approximately how many participants are:
1. White ____________
2. Negro ____________
3. Puerto Rican ____________
4. American Indian ____________
5. Mexican-American ____________
6. Oriental ____________
7. Other ____________
(Specify) ____________

B. In a typical program cycle approximately how many participants are within each of the following age groups:

age groups:	Male	Female
1. Under 18	______	______
2. 18 to 25	______	______
3. 25 to 40	______	______
4. 40 and over	______	______

C. Is your program primarily for
1. ( ) Inner-city residents
2. ( ) Rural residents
3. ( ) Migrant workers
4. ( ) Other (specify)____________________

D. For the purposes of conducting this program, has your company attempted to bring disadvantaged individuals closer to your present location? ( ) Yes ( ) No
If yes, please explain.____
____

E. Special Problems
1. Are program participants given special consideration in the job situation not normally provided to work force? ( ) Yes ( ) No

If yes, what sort?

a. ( ) Different standard for lateness
b. ( ) Different standard for absence
c. ( ) Different standard for work performance
d. ( ) Other (specify)____
____

2. Have there been complaints among regular employees about special treatment of program participants? If yes, please explain how complaints have been handled.

____

____

3. What other special problems have been presented by program participants and how have these been met? (e.g., housing, health, transportation problems, law violations, etc.)

Problem presented	How problem has been met
a ____________________	a ____________________ ____________________ ____________________
b ____________________	b ____________________ ____________________ ____________________
c ____________________	c ____________________ ____________________ ____________________ ____________________

V. Program Assessment

A. How long has your program been in operation? ____________________

B. Do you expect the program to be continued ( ) Yes ( ) No If no, why not? ________

____

____

C. Of those who left the program *before completion*, what percentage left for the following reasons:

	Percentage
1. Took another job	________
2. Entered military service	________
3. Lost interest	________
4. Inability to meet training requirements	________
5. Medical problems	________
6. Arrested	________
7. Personal problems (alcoholism, family problems, etc.)	________
8. Dismissed	________
9. Other reasons (specify)	________
	100%

D. Current status of those who have *completed* the program

1. How many individuals have completed the program since it began? ____________________
   What percentage is this of the total number who have entered the program? ____________________

2. Of those trainees who have completed the program and have been *employed by your company*, what percentage

	Percentage
a. Are on the job for which they were trained during the program	______
b. Are employed in a non-related job	______
c. Have left employment	______
Within three months	______
Within six months	______
After more than six months	______
	100%

3. Please list the major reasons given for *leaving employment after completion of the program.*

______

______

______

4. Compared with the normal employee turnover rate was rate of turnover of program participants after employment
   a. ( ) Significantly lower
   b. ( ) Approximately the same
   c. ( ) Significantly higher

5. For trainees subsequently employed by companies other than your own, please provide any follow-up information you may have regarding job tenure, job performance, and the like.

______

______

______

______

E. What is the estimated out-of-pocket company expense per trainee completing the program?

______

F. Does your company consider this program to be
   1. ( ) Relatively expensive (due to high rate of turnover or other factors—please specify)
   2. ( ) Relatively inexpensive (since a large percentage of those who complete the program become competent employees or due to other factors—please specify)
   3. ( ) Neither of the above
   Please explain your answer ______

______

______

G. What would you consider the single greatest advantage of working with the schools in such a program?

______

______

______

______

H. What would you consider the single greatest disadvantage of working with the schools in such a program?

____

____

____

____

I. What has been the most outstanding positive factor or benefit derived by your company from the program you have described?

____

____

____

____

J. What has been the most serious negative factor associated with your company's participation in this program?

____

____

____

____

Please enclose any additional descriptive materials on this program which may be available.

APPENDIX B

Conference Materials

Conference on Cooperation of Business and the Schools to Provide Job-Oriented Education for the Disadvantaged

University of Tennessee Student Center
January 8, 1969

8:45 a.m. - 9:00	Registration - Room 235
9:00 - 9:10	Introduction; description of the research project of which this conference is a part; outlining of conference objectives
9:10 - 9:40	Keynote address by businessman from Richmond, Virginia, who has been involved in an industry-school program to train disadvantaged employees and prospective employees
9:40 - 10:15	The Business Point of View: Panel of local businessmen discussing problems encountered or anticipated in employing and retaining disadvantaged individuals
10:15 - 10:30	Coffee - Room 223
10:30 - 11:30	Description of job-related problems of the local disadvantaged population by Knoxville anti-poverty workers
11:30 - 12:30 p.m.	Luncheon - Crest Room
12:30 - 1:00	What are we doing in this community about the needs of businessmen for trained workers and the need for training on the part of local disadvantaged groups? (Explanation of existing MDTA and vocational education programs and other special aid programs in the Knoxville area.)
1:00 - 2:30	Discussion of some exemplary programs of job-oriented education located throughout the nation--a presentation of research findings. Representatives of companies engaged in these programs will be present to serve in a resource capacity.
2:30 - 2:45	Coffee - Room 223
2:45 - 4:00	Discussion in small groups--implications of conference presentations for local action (Rooms 202, 203, 235, 337, 338)
4:00 - 4:30	General meeting to discuss what happened in small groups (Room 235)
4:30 - 5:00	Evaluation of conference
5:00 p.m.	Adjournment

PROGRAM PARTICIPANTS

9:00 - 9:10	Dr. Trudy W. Banta, Project Coordinator, presiding Other project staff: Dr. Douglas C. Towne, Director, ORDCU, Mrs. Ann Black, Mrs. Linda Douglass, and Mr. Roger Davis
9:10 - 9:40	Mr. Herbert W. Larrabee, Director of Industrial Relations, AMF Co., Richmond, Virginia
9:40 - 10:15	Moderator: Mr. Morris Branch, Systems Engineering Manager, IBM Panel: Mr. Hugh Davis, C. M. McClung; Mr. H. C. Oakes, Manager, Broadway K-mart; Mr. James Disney, Industrial Relations Director, Dempster Bros.; Mr. Sam MacDonald, Personnel Director, Rohm & Haas
10:30 - 11:30	Mr. Luke Ross, Director, Knoxville Community Action Committee; Mr. Woodrow Wilson, Director, Knoxville Urban League
11:30 - 12:30	Remarks - Mr. Charlie Dunn
12:30 - 1:00	Douglas Towne
1:00 - 2:30	Consultants: Mrs. Betty Chandler, Training Department Manager, Goldsmith's Department Store, Memphis; Mr. John D. Evans, Employee Relations Director, General Electric, Cleveland; Mr. Ernest Friedli, Manager, IBM, New York City; Mr. Herb Larrabee, Director of Industrial Relations, AMF, Richmond, Virginia; Mr. Charles Kuykendall, Director of Central Employment, Union Carbide-Nuclear Division, Oak Ridge; Mr. Philip Viso, Training Director, Leaf Brands Division of W. R. Grace, Chicago

PREFACE

Even a cursory examination of recent newspapers and magazines reveals the mounting concern in this nation for improving the lot of those citizens whose social, educational and economic condition is far below the American average. The plight of the disadvantaged has come to be recognized as a vicious circle in which low native capacities, poor family and neighborhood background, minimal educational opportunities, weak motivation to learn, poor health, and social barriers to the use of one's capacities all contribute to low earning ability; and low income in turn perpetuates its antecedent conditions. With this recognition has come a desire on the part of many Americans to break this chain that maintains poverty. Spurred by the soaring costs of welfare and the growing unrest in the urban ghettos, leaders in both the public and private sectors of the economy are calling for the most extensive attempt this nation has ever made to provide jobs and training for the disadvantaged.

In January, 1968 President Lyndon Johnson asked Congress for a $2.1 billion manpower program "...to help Americans who want to work get a job." And since six out of seven working Americans are employed by private industry, President Johnson felt that jobs for the unemployed could and should be made available by the private sector. "Industry knows how to train people for the jobs on which its profits depend," said President Johnson, and therefore, "government-supported on-the-job training is the most effective gateway to meaningful employment." (1)

In its March, 1968 report the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders prescribed creation of more jobs for the disadvantaged as one of the steps needed to alter ghetto conditions and reduce the possibilities of further bloodshed in the cities. (2)

Lack of education is one important reason why some individuals are unemployed and/or have extremely low incomes. Many of the disadvantaged have had an opportunity to acquire an education in the public schools but have turned it down by dropping out as soon as possible because the programs offered did not seem to fit their needs. This nation has a tremendous responsibility to assist that part of the population which has been unable to profit from traditional school curricula in finding gainful employment. Earning one's own way imparts to an individual a sense of personal worth, of satisfaction, of responsibility. Enabling more and more of the previously unemployed to experience this sense of satisfaction is essential to the task of quieting the unrest that today exists among the disadvantaged of our country.

As businessmen have recognized that the economic health of the country is vital to the health of their own companies, many corporations have already initiated programs designed to train and employ the disadvantaged. However, if, along with his job training, the worker is not given the basic education in communication skills, applied arithmetic, etc., that will allow him to adapt to change, then when technological advances make his job obsolete he may not be able to make the adjustment that would allow him to remain employed. In providing this basic education component of a program designed to enhance the employability of the disadvantaged the education community can serve business as a powerful ally.

While the schools have experienced some failures in dealing with the disadvantaged, they still employ a good number of those who know most about how humans learn. And work-study programs sponsored by private industry often have much more appeal than traditional school curricula for the disadvantaged individual because he is enabled to earn wages for performing useful work while he learns, thus enhancing his image of himself as a worthwhile person.

The alliance of private industry and the schools has produced many excellent job-oriented education programs (i.e., programs designed to enhance the employability of disadvantaged individuals through job training and related educational experiences) for the potential school dropout, the hard-core unemployed, and the underemployed. However, the majority of businessmen and educators throughout the country probably are not aware of the variety of cooperative training ventures that have been attempted because no detailed compilation of information about such programs now exists. This is the need which the first part of this study attempts to fill.

Part One of this study consists of two sections. The first section includes an extensive review of current literature which provides the foundation for the entire study. The second section is a report of a nationwide survey designed (1) to identify those job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged sponsored by coalitions of private industry and the schools and (2) to provide descriptive information about each program which could be used for future reference by business and school leaders interested in initiating such programs in their own communities. The first portion of the literature review characterizes the disadvantaged population of the nation, with emphasis on the conditions responsible for the plight of the 22 million individuals whom Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare Wilbur Cohen says can be classified in this category (3). The second portion of the review singles out specific groups of disadvantaged individuals for a closer look at their particular job-related problems, and the third portion deals with the attempts made to date by government and private industry to meet the training needs of the disadvantaged.

Following directions suggested by the literature review, two questionnaires were designed to gather information on 64 exemplary cooperative job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged. One questionnaire was mailed to a designated representative of the school involved in each program and a similar, yet distinct, instrument was sent to a representative of the company involved. A compilation of the information obtained via these instruments is contained in Section Five of the Part One report.

In order to provide guidance for future utilization of the information compiled as a result of Part One activities, a trial component was added to the fact-finding phase. Part Two of this study involved conduct of three one-day seminars in order to test the seminar approach to disseminating information on cooperative job-oriented education programs.

Three widely separated urban communities, each attempting to cope with the problems presented by a different segment of the disadvantaged population, were chosen. Selected leaders of business and education in Knoxville, Tennessee, Denver, Colorado, and New York, New York, were called together to look at the report on existing job-oriented education programs in light of situations existing in their own city and to discuss the implications of the report for possible programs of a similar nature in that city. Included in the Part Two activities are an outline of procedures followed in setting up the seminars, an account of the proceeds of each of the meetings, and evaluative data.

The information in this report is designed to serve a number of audiences. Business executives and/or school administrators interested in setting up a seminar in their own communities may draw upon the report of Part Two activities for guidance in planning the seminar and upon the Part One report for background information and data to be used in the meeting itself. Personnel directors from industry, and curriculum supervisors and teachers from schools, who may be interested in the details of setting up and operating a job-oriented education program in their own situations could utilize the report on existing programs in Section Five of the Part One report.

FOOTNOTES

1. New York Times, January 24, 1968.

2. Knoxville News-Sentinel, March 5, 1968.

3. Statement of Wilbur Cohen, December 14, 1968, interview on Face the Nation, National Broadcasting Corporation.

DISADVANTAGEMENT

IDENTIFICATION OF THE DISADVANTAGED

Identification of individuals as being disadvantaged is commonly accomplished by means of applying a definition such as that used in manpower programs. The manpower program definition requires three conditions; (1) the individual must be poor, (2) the individual must be without suitable employment, and (3) the individual must be either a school dropout, a member of a minority group, less than 22 years of age, more than 45 years of age, or handicapped.

1. Poor. An individual is considered poor if the relationship between family net income, and a combination of family size and family location (farm versus non-farm), does not exceed that level shown in the table below. (A person is also poor if he is a member of a family receiving cash welfare payments.)

Table 1

Family Size	Annual Net Income Non-Farm	Farm
1	$1,600	$1,100
2	2,000	1,400
3	2,500	1,800
4	3,200	2,200
5	3,800	2,700
6	4,200	2,900
7	4,700	3,300
8	5,300	3,700
9	5,800	4,100
10	6,300	4,400
11	6,800	4,800
12	7,300	5,100
13 or more	7,800	5,500

2. Without Suitable Employment. Identification of a person as being without suitable employment provides two alternatives. The person may be unemployed (without employment of any significant nature), or he may be employed in a situation which is unsatisfactory (unsuitable employment). This second alternative is somewhat more judgmental than is the first. Two major questions which can be raised are: Who will determine if an individual is unsuitable employed...the individual or the agency, and what will be considered to be unsuitable employment?

3. To be classified as disadvantaged an individual must not only be poor and without suitable employment but must also be either a school dropout (less than high school graduation) or a member of a minority group (Negro, Spanish-American, Indian, etc.) or either too young (less than 22 years old) or too old (over 45 years old), or handicapped.

a. School dropout. Early departure from the formal school environment does not result in disadvantagement for all. If, however, a person is poor, without suitable employment and also a dropout, there is less chance that he will be able to remedy his unsuitable conditions.

b. Minority groups. History gives ample evidence of the difficulties encountered by members of minority groups in becoming integral parts of society: difficulties are still encountered by the Jew, the Irish, and the Italian. Other minority groups, which have more recently initiated active acculturation efforts, face the same difficulties and struggles. It is therefore held that if a poor person without suitable employment is also a member of a minority group, he will have greater difficulties in improving his conditions, just as in the case of the school dropout.

c. Age. Research and statistics indicate that individuals less than 22 and more than 45 years of age have greater difficulty in becoming employed than do those in the age group from 22 to 45. It therefore holds that a poor person without suitable employment who is also too "young" or too "old" will have difficulty in altering his situation, as in the case of the school dropout and minority group member.

d. Handicapped. The physically, mentally or otherwise handicapped person will, by definition, have added difficulties in overcoming income and employment deficiencies. To be handicapped is to be different from the average person, and since society and its components are designed for the average person, remedial actions are required to alter either the individual, so that he may function more like the average person, or society and its components, so that the handicap does not prevent the individual from functioning in a manner similar to the average person.

The elements of this definition of the disadvantaged are helpful but leave much to be desired. They leave considerable room for individual judgments and thus misinterpretations, and for great variance from situation to situation. The elements are also rather broad and are in need of greater specification if the purpose is to identify only those that are "really disadvantaged." (This may not be a valid purpose for this definition.)

The most obvious aspect of this definition is the relative nature of disadvantagement. Not only do income limits vary with size of family and location (farm versus non-farm) but also with geographic location, i.e., many localities utilize other income levels which reflect more accurately the local costs of living. The degree of disadvantagement resulting from dropping from school is of course relative to when the person left school, how long he had spent in school and the kind and quality of preparation he had received prior to departure. In the pluralistic society of the United States all persons belong to some minority group, and so it is necessary to interpret this condition relative to many other factors. Age is also relative to the types of employment available in a specific community and the tradition and expectations of that culture. Being handicapped is also relative, not only in the nature of the handicap, but in degree.

In the context of this definition then, a person is disadvantaged if he is presently in an unsatisfactory economic situation (poor and without suitable employment) and if he also possesses a personal characteristic (school dropout, minority group member, young or old, or handicapped) which is likely to hinder his ability to alter this unsatisfactory economic situation.

What is Meant by "Disadvantagement?"

Disadvantagement is a way of life. To be disadvantaged does not mean simply that the individual is suffering from a lack of money, although insufficient income is one of his problems. To be disadvantaged is to be handicapped--emotionally, medically, socially, educationally, and psychologically, as well as economically. Many disadvantaged people bear the additional handicap of racial discrimination, although the term refers to rural whites and non-whites, urban whites and non-whites, Indians, Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, and migrant workers. The disadvantaged person is a composite of the adverse experiences of his life, experiences never known by most middle class Americans.

The handicaps begin at birth, with improper nutrition and poor prenatal and postnatal care and crowded, unhygenic living conditions contributing to the formation of a comparatively fragile body. As the child develops he is imprinted with the self-defeating attitudes of his parents which become part of his life-long psychological make-up. He is left on his own much of the time, either because the father has abandoned the family, or because his parents work long hours at menial jobs outside the home. If there is any income, it is likely to be misspent, due to ignorance of budget planning and to higher ghetto prices. He is not given the self-image of individual dignity and potential achievement that middle class children absorb from their parents.

In school, the child is usually fatigued because he has had to share a bed with four or five brothers and sisters. Lack of proper diet and health care cause him more sickness than his middle class age-mate suffers. Resulting absenteeism, plus the lack of cultural support at home, make it difficult for him to communicate with his middle class teachers, giving him the feeling that he is a misfit. He fails in many school endeavors, and both he and his teachers begin to expect failure. As he grows older, his alienation deepens. He turns to more rewarding experiences--sexual activities and relationships with friends who share his alienation. School becomes an obstacle to be avoided; he feels that all his important learning has been gained "in the street." As soon as he reaches the legal age, he drops out of school.

With no training, little education (the education of those disadvantaged who remain in school until graduation is inferior to that of middle class students), negligible family support and a life-long pattern of failure, he enters the competitive job world. Qualified for none but the most meaningless tasks at the bottom of the industrial ladder, he is subject to lay-offs if he is lucky enough to obtain a job in the first place. His history of failures causes him to have poor incentive, to suffer personality conflicts with foremen and other employees, and to "lay out" or drop out of work, reinforcing his personal and social alienation. Past experiences have taught him to expect nothing from the future but more unsuccessful endeavors. Afraid to risk additional failure, which he now thinks inevitable, he substitutes other personal activities and gratifications, or merely succumbs to a lethargy of futility.

Every act of the disadvantaged person deepens his rut of defeat and isolates him further from the productive, successful way of life that is available to so many Americans. Withdrawal, despair and futility line the walls of his world. Into this world he brings a child of his own, a child who seems destined, as his father before him, to repeat the same cycle of failure.

Disadvantagement is a way of life. Without outside interference it will perpetuate itself.

Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

The disadvantaged person lives according to his own life style, which is a map of his total past experiences. Those who employ him, or attempt to deal with him in any way, may be baffled by his reactions to their efforts. Although his basic needs and drives are "standard human needs," his experiences have forced him into a set of motivations and attitudes that are foreign to his middle class counterparts. He is, in fact, almost an alien in his own country. Due to this situation, the "average" disadvantaged person is found to have some or many of the following characteristics:

I. Communication
  a. Speaks no English,
     speaks it only as a second language, or
     speaks English with such a dialect or such a disturbed syntax that communication with employer or teacher is difficult
  b. Does not express himself except on elementary matters

II. Health
  a. History of illness due to lack of proper care and diet
  b. History of personal and social adjustment problems
  c. Mismanagement of income, which compounds deficiencies

III. Family
  a. Part of a family cycle that retards self-progress
  b. Female-dominated family, due to absence of father-figure
  c. Rigid non-verbal parent-child relationships
  d. Lack of privacy in home
  e. Early introduction to sex
  f. Childhood experiences with dangerous or threatening individuals
  g. Free unions and consensual marriages
  h. Lack of dependable child day-care
  i. Substandard housing

IV. Social
  a. Strong ties with peer groups
  b. Suspicion of other racial and social groups
  c. Suspicion of strangers
  d. Antagonism to authority, loyalty to friends and kin
  e. Emphasis on physical strength

V. Personal
  a. Poor image of self
  b. Pragmatic, possesses wide range of practical experience
  c. Unable to project into future--lives day by day
  d. Hostile
  e. Rigid
  f. Prone to depression
  g. Distrustful of others
  h. Impulsive

i. Sense of inferiority
j. Withdrawn
k. Lethargic
l. Lack of sense of time (may not own a clock)
m. Lack of ability to define own problems
n. Expectation of failure
o. Suspicious of "tokenism" in employment offers
p. Poor masculine self-image due to social and job failures
q. Attempt to reinforce self-image through physical strength and sexual prowess
r. Limited education
s. Feelings of rejection and isolation

The foregoing are merely characteristics which of and by themselves are not adequate to describe the disadvantaged. They are suggested only to provide an outline of the dimensions of the total problem of disadvantagement. Any selected disadvantaged person obviously will vary from this characterization both individually and as he relates to his environment and to society.

Specific Disadvantaged Groups

The disadvantaged population of America can probably be divided best along rural and urban lines. Curiously enough, all of America's disadvantaged racial groups will be found in both locales save the Spanish-speaking Puerto Ricans and the Oriental-Americans, who are almost exclusively urban dwellers.

The Rural Poor

Even though rural America, especially the South, has undergone significant positive changes in urban-rural relationships, industrialization, politics, education, and vocational training, this portion of America still lags behind the nation as a whole in economic and social well-being.

The recent wave of urban riots probably has its roots in rural poverty since a great proportion of those people crowded into urban slums originally came to the city to escape an impoverished existence in a rural area. The total number of rural poor would be even larger than 14 million had not so many individuals migrated to the cities in search of work and a place to live. Most of the migrants find, however, that they have merely swapped life in rural poverty for life in an urban slum, and the bitterness which inevitably results breeds violence.

There are three primary disadvantaged groups in rural America: the rural Negro, the rural "poor white," and the Indian. A rural "subgroup" would be the migrant laborer and his family who forlornly travel the highways of America in order to earn their daily bread.

The Negro child in rural America today is generally born into a state of disadvantagement, and must struggle from the beginning to overcome this situation. Many are not properly equipped to do so, because of inadequate health, education and training. In addition to the usual problems of disadvantagement, the Negro, as with other racial minorities, must face the additional burden of racial prejudice.

The rural poor whites, typified by the Appalachian population, are characterized by their lack of organization. These people, isolated for centuries and highly xenophobic, are often their own worst enemies. Out-migration of the young and potentially capable is a very serious problem in rural America, as are medical problems and lack of adequate schools.

The Indian in rural America faces special problems since he still resides largely on reservations. Indians have only recently acquired many of the rights taken for granted by the rest of us. They are faced with a shortage of land, jobs, and capital resources, and the only opportunities open to them are away from the reservation and the strong family ties which are so important. Indians today need much better education and training so that they can assume a more productive and rewarding place in society.

Because the migrant laborer has no "home" he is really in a classification all his own. Migrants are probably the least privileged group of workers in the United States. The Mexican-Americans of the Southwest make up most of the migrant labor force, but some poor whites are also included, and Negroes constitute a large portion of this force in the East. The migrant travels for a living and his family goes along. Family ties are strong since the family is usually employed as a unit, but this situation prevents migrant children from having normal childhood learning and play experiences. Work is seasonal and irregular, and due to the inability of this group to establish roots in a single location, opportunities for education and training are almost non-existent for them and for their children. Since they do not "belong" to any county, they miss out on the stabilizing advantages of church, school, health and welfare programs and recreation services. Due to a new militancy, as in California with Cesar Chavez and his United Farm Workers of California, the migrant seems at long last to be asserting himself for the purpose of improving his lot.

The Urban Poor

A key factor in poverty in America, whether for the Oriental-American in San Francisco or the Puerto Rican in Spanish Harlem, is the unfavorable employment situation which exists in deprived areas. High unemployment, low-paying and low-status jobs are the rule. Unemployment and underemployment are the most critical problems facing individuals in impoverished neighborhoods.

Negroes are the most frequently unemployed of all disadvantaged groups. Although they constitute only 10 per cent of the United States population, Negroes comprise almost 40 per cent of those living in impoverished areas of large cities. Lack of skills and education keeps Negroes among the ranks of the unemployed.

The movement of industry to the suburbs has hurt the Negro particularly in his search for a job since transportation to work is virtually nonexistent. In most cases, the employment situation for the Negro outside the ghetto is not much better than for the ghetto resident, whereas quite the opposite is true for the white worker.

The Puerto Rican faces many of the same obstacles that confront the Negro. However, many Puerto Ricans cannot even speak English and this further compounds their problems. Negroes and Puerto Ricans constitute the bulk of those on welfare today in New York City.

In addition to these two groups there are the Oriental-Americans, concentrated in West Coast slums of the Southwest and upper Midwest.

Knoxville's particular disadvantaged groups include the Appalachian whites, who, although very passive and unassuming, are here in shockingly large numbers. In most cases they live in appalling circumstances. The

Negro, although not as numerous in Knoxville as the Appalachian white, nevertheless lives under desperate conditions also.

These two groups will occupy the attention of the participants in this conference.

Many of the Appalachian whites and disadvantaged Negroes who are crowded into Knoxville today originally came from rural slums. These people made the move because they wanted a job and a decent place to live. Some have found these things, but many others have not. Most have merely exchanged life in a rural slum for life in an urban slum, at exorbitant cost to themselves, to the cities, and to rural America as well.

Despite undesirable urban conditions, few of these deprived individuals have chosen to return to the rural areas from whence they came. Continuing high unemployment in rural areas will mean a constant influx of disadvantaged people into cities such as Knoxville.

Unemployment and underemployment are the most severe problems for disadvantaged persons living in metropolitan areas. The highest unemployment rates are among teenagers and young adults, but persons in all age groups suffer. A much overlooked factor is that a considerable number of slum residents of working age are neither working nor looking for work, and are thus not counted in the labor force.

Low-status and low-paying jobs represent the primary means of livelihood for workers in impoverished neighborhoods. Residents of these areas are most often employed in semi-skilled and unskilled jobs. This situation is especially crucial in Knoxville, where the majority of this city's many deprived citizens are seriously underemployed and underpaid.

In addition, Negro workers in general face greater obstacles in their quest for employment, whether they live in impoverished neighborhoods or elsewhere.

The disadvantaged generally have a strong tendency to reject formal education, probably due to their language problems (whether Appalachian white or Negro). Inability to communicate with teachers often leads to failure in school, and failure creates a climate in which motivation is absent. Behavior problems soon begin and often the disadvantaged individual becomes a school dropout. Education problems create a continuing cycle of failure for the disadvantaged.

Summary of Federally-Supported Job Training Programs for the Disadvantaged

Legislation in the 1950's emphasized manpower as an economic resource and concentrated on the development of scientific and technical manpower. During the 1960's the emphasis shifted, and manpower programs were aimed at aiding those individuals who face disadvantages in competing for jobs. Relevant manpower programs which are geared to serve the competitively disadvantaged are the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Vocational Rehabilitation program, and the manpower components of the Economic Opportunity Act. A major deliverer of services, the United States Employment Service, is also relevant.

Although the overall objectives of the federal manpower thrust of the 1960's are fairly clear, the objectives of some of the individual programs are not. The programs emerged in a piecemeal fashion, through individual acts which were written and amended in rapid succession to meet current crises. As a result of this unsystematic effort, desired interrelations among programs did not emerge.

Despite the fact that the 1961-67 period was largely an experimental, trial-and-error period, a number of positive contributions have resulted from the manpower effort. A not insignificant result is the identification of the services needed to overcome obstacles to employment and retention of the competitively disadvantaged. The following services have been identified:

(1) outreach seeks to encourage the discouraged and undermotivated to avail themselves of services;

(2) adult basic education remedies the lack or obsolescence of earlier schooling;

(3) entry level skill training offers training for individuals who are ill prepared to undertake normally more advanced training;

(4) training allowances provide both support and incentives for trainees and residential facilities for youth whose home environment precludes successful rehabilitation;

(5) work experience accustoms inexperienced individuals to the discipline of the work place;

(6) job development attempts to solicit job opportunities suitable to the abilities of the disadvantaged job seeker;

(7) relocation and transportation assistance brings the worker to the area;

(8) job coaching works out supervisor-worker adjustments on the job;

(9) creation of public service jobs provides work which is tailored to the needs of job seekers not absorbed in the competitive market.

These services, even though recognized as essential, are available through no one program, agency, or labor market institution. The programs are limited in the services they can offer, and budgetary commitments are not related to need. Administrative capability for delivery of the services has not yet been developed. This is particularly noticeable at the local level, which has the greatest potential for coordination. At present a would-be program sponsor for a community can seek help from no single agency or combination of easily accessible institutions. Furthermore no community has enough resources for providing service to all who demonstrate needs. Resources and enrollments in all the manpower programs are so small relative to the size of the labor force and the magnitude of needs that they can have no appreciable impact on the problems they were designed to solve. The multiplicity of federal funding sources complicates the problem by promoting competition among agencies at the federal level; it also encourages proliferation at the community level, setting a high value on "grantsmanship." Attempts at coordination have met with little success and efforts to develop or train capable staffs at any level of government have been few.

Data for evaluation are inadequate for all programs; and no program has a reporting system which can produce data of the type and quality needed. For most programs, data relating to enrollee characteristics, services provided, and follow-up information are inadequate or undependable. Those ad hoc internal evaluations which have been performed for some programs are limited in coverage, based on weak data, and not probing in their investigations.

Nevertheless the data that can be pieced together indicate that some programs are moderately successful and that expansion is justified. No program is a clearly proven failure although, in many cases, funds could have been better spent elsewhere.

The necessary experimental period of the 1960's has provided lessons, probed needs, and identified useful services. Program expansion has been slower than anticipated but less because of Congressional hesitance than because of an absence of forceful, aggressive Administration requests.

Source: Mangum, G. L. "Evaluating Federal Manpower Programs," The development and use of manpower, Industrial Relations Research Association, Proceedings of the twentieth annual winter meeting, Washington, D. C., December 28-29, 1968.

Leaf-Brands Program in Cooperation with Chicago Board of Education

The Leaf-Brands Division of W. R. Grace cooperates with the Chicago Board of Education, Division of Adult Basic Education, to provide a job-oriented education program for disadvantaged persons. Mr. Philip A. Viso, who is both Training Director of the Leaf Brands Division and Assistant Principal of the Hilliard Adult Education Center, initiated the program. The program involves basic education for functional and complete illiterates, English as a second language, and preparation for citizenship. It is designed for inner city residents. In a typical program cycle, the participants are over 20 years of age, with two-thirds of them in the 25-40 age group. They are predominantly Spanish-speaking. Sixty per cent are South American immigrants, Mexican-American, and Puerto Rican, while 25 per cent are Negroes, and 15 per cent are white Appalachian migrants.

Factors leading to the initiation of the program included high rate of turnover, lay-offs necessitated by the language handicap when foreign-born employees had to be transferred to other departments because of inability to understand instructions, and the need for basic education in order to improve job status. The program is conducted on company premises, with teachers supplied by elementary and adult basic education schools. The federal anti-poverty agency, state employment agency, and the National Alliance of Businessmen are also involved in the program. Funding is divided, with 60 per cent coming from schools and 40 per cent from the industry. Federal funds are used, under an MA-3 contract.

Program areas performed by the company are occupational information service, provision of equipment and other materials for school use, recruitment, screening, selection, on-the-job training, retraining, personal orientation, vocational instruction, final job placement of program participants, and follow-up. Areas performed by the school include placement for training experience, related on-site classroom instruction, upgrading company employees, personal orientation, literacy training (for non-English-speaking people), basic education (communication skills, basic arithmetic, etc.) and regular academic classroom instruction. Participants involved in this program are all employees of Leaf Brands. (The Chicago Board of Education conducts similar programs in other companies, however.)

There are approximately 200 participants involved in an average training cycle of 39 weeks: 100 packers, 50 warehousemen, and 50 servicemen. Participants are paid by the company while in the program. Eight instructors are provided part-time by the school, four in basic education (communications skills, basic arithmetic, etc.) and four in regular academic subjects. Five company personnel are utilized in the program, and one school staff member is utilized as liaison between company and school. An advisory committee is used for the program. Sensitivity training was conducted by Mr. Viso, the training director, for all levels of management. The program is open to all employees who volunteer for it, and is required of all employees in some positions. Participants are screened and selected according to job requirements and promotional training needed. Disadvantaged individuals were recruited for the program through public employment agencies, CEP, religious organizations, social and fraternal groups, and the Urban Progress Center.

Participants receive individual counseling, with an average of 10 per cent needing occasional psychological counseling, 1 per cent needing intensive psychological counseling, and 1 per cent requiring referral to other agencies for psychological help. In addition to psychological counseling, participants receive counseling help in career planning, academic planning, academic difficulties, and health problems. Participants spend an average of 7½ hours per day on the job and 1½ hours in the classroom, and are paid for the 9-hour working day. Union approval was obtained prior to the establishment of the program.

Cooperation with industry has resulted in changes in school teaching methods, specifically the use of industrial math in math programs. Special school problems encountered have been attendance, which was handled through group guidance and immediate follow-up; and conflict of work schedule, handled by rescheduling work. Special problems encountered by the participants were keeping regular hours, dealt with in group guidance programs; and following long term goals, handled by the establishment of intermediary goals. Flexibility of school scheduling was required to accommodate plant needs.

Since its initiation in August, 1968, absenteeism and employee turnover have been reduced significantly. Participating employees are more interested in their work and make a significantly greater effort to succeed due to the interest their company has shown in them. The company considers the program to be relatively inexpensive. The lower rate of turnover, improved product quality, and lower insurance rates (made possible by lower accident rates) offset the initial outlay of funds.

AMF-Richmond Technical Center Cooperative Job Training Program

In Richmond, Virginia, the American Machine & Foundry Company, Union Machinery Division, and the Richmond Technical Center have established a cooperative job training program for potential and actual dropouts, and for the hard-core unemployed. Developing out of the industry's inability to obtain skilled or semi-skilled job applicants from the community, the program serves both inner city and rural residents. A typical program cycle includes approximately 64 per cent white participants, 35 per cent Negro participants, and 1 per cent Mexican-American participants. Ninety-eight per cent of the participants in a typical cycle are male, with 70 per cent in the 18 to 25 age group, 20 per cent in the 25 to 40 age group, and 8 per cent over 40. There are an estimated half-million people living in the Richmond metropolitan area.

The Union Machinery Division of AMF manufactures bakery machines, stitching machines and tire retreading machines. In addition to the Richmond Technical Center, there are several other agencies involved in the program; the Welfare Department, Federal Anti-poverty Agency, State Employment Agency, Urban League, Industry-Education Council, Department of Labor, Veterans Administration, Department of Defense, Virginia State Rehabilitation Agency, Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, and the Virginia State Prison. Funding is primarily by the company (80%) with schools providing 8 per cent, state funds 2 per cent, and federal funds (MDTA) 10 per cent.

The program is conducted on regular company premises and on school premises. The company provides consultants, equipment, and other materials for school use, and performs the following program duties: recruitment, screening, selection, placement for training experience, on-the-job training, vestibule training, upgrading company employees, general orientation, pre-apprenticeship training, final job placement and follow-up. The school performs related on-site vocational instruction, regular academic classroom instruction (beyond literacy training), literacy training, and basic education (communications skills, basic arithmetic, etc.).

The program is designed for upgrading of present employees and for improving the employability of prospective employees, encouraging placement of disadvantaged and hard-core employees. During an average training cycle of 26 weeks, the entire program involves 143 participants, divided under the following job titles: assemblers (34), electrical assemblers (8), machinists (54), painters (5), sheet metal operators (8), welders (4), and drill press operators (30). Qualifications for the foregoing jobs were changed for purposes of the program in the following manner: applicants were hired with less than minimal physical standards, with 5th to 8th grade education, and below background investigation standards. Participants are paid while in the program, on basis of hours worked and skill. Participants spend ½ hour per day in the classroom, and 7½ hours on the job daily.

There is ratio of 10 participants to 1 staff member, with 7 company personnel utilized full-time, 1 part-time, plus all foremen and supervisors. One company staff member is designated as liaison between company and school for the program; and non-professional aides from the target population are employed on the program staff, with one serving as training coordinator and the others representing area agencies. The entire staff of the Vocational Center is utilized in the program. The company staff underwent two months of special orientation, seminars and meetings with area agencies and investigators.

First-line supervisors, fellow employees, personnel department members, and other middle management personnel were given training by members of the training department. The union was involved somewhat, at early briefing sessions.

Disadvantaged individuals were recruited through applicant backlog, direct mailing, school newspapers, radio and TV, advertising, company recruitment in target neighborhoods, employee referrals, private employment agencies, public employment agencies, distribution of leaflets at barber shops, lunch rooms, and the State Fair. Hiring and testing standards were relaxed from usual procedures, and background and physical standards were less stringent in screening applicants for the program.

Participants receive individual counseling attention on a regular basis. In addition to job problems, counseling includes family, financial and other personal problems, plus liaison with police and rehabilitation officials, and continues after training as long as needed. There is a buddy system, with a representative of the Personnel Department assigned as "Big Brother" to each participant. Participants are given different standards for lateness, absence, and work performance. Complaints among regular employees about special treatment of participants have been handled by the grievants' immediate superiors.

Other problems have been transportation, solved by the Vocational School bus, law violations, handled through special probation arrangements, and attitudes of foremen, handled through special briefing sessions.

Since the beginning of the program six months ago, 10 (8%) participants have completed training and are on the job for which they were trained and 4 per cent have left the program due to dismissal and personal problems. Rate of turnover of program participants was significantly lower than normal employee turnover. Estimated company expense per trainee was $2,000. The company considers this program to be relatively inexpensive, due to increased competency of participants. The company considers the disadvantages of the program to be diminution of work and hiring standards, and performance; while it considers the advantages to be an unlimited supply of unskilled applicants who, through training, can meet the semi-skilled employee needs of the company.

Chase Manhattan-New York City Business Experience Training (BET) Program

The B. E. T. program (Business Experience Training program) originated with the Chase Manhattan Bank in New York City and is designed to provide part-time employment for potential high school dropouts from disadvantaged areas in the city. At the present it is limited to 100 junior and senior boys, (80% under 18 years of age) from the inner-city areas, most of whom are Negroes (60% Negro, 28% Puerto Rican, 10% White and 2% Oriental). As a part of their work experience the participants attend lectures and guidance sessions designed to enhance their likelihood of becoming successful both on the job and in the school. Chase Manhattan perceived this program as a means of meeting staffing needs through pre-employment training as well as "part of corporate civic responsibility to attempt to solve social problems."

The B. E. T. program selects the number of participants needed from lists of twice that number of participants which are provided by two different schools. This allows each potential participant to be interviewed and to realize that the chance of being selected is only 50-50. The State Employment Agency is also involved in this project but 100% of the funds are provided by Chase Manhattan and the program is conducted solely on their premises.

The schools and the Employment Security Agency are primarily involved in recruitment screening and selection; however, Chase selects the actual participants from those nominated by interviewing each as mentioned above. Chase Manhattan considers on-the-job training, related on-site classroom instruction, general orientation training (e.g., grooming, punctuality, etc.) and final job placement of program participants as being their major program inputs. They are also, however, heavily involved in placement for training experience, vestibule training, vocational instruction on school premises and follow-up of program participants.

The purposes of the program are to provide students with part-time work so as to improve their prospect of employability while at the same time encouraging them to complete their high school education and to consider college as a possible alternative. A total of 100 male students (job title-clerical trainee) are involved in this program which is 84 weeks in duration. The jobs being performed were already in existence rather than being specially designed and the students receive an hourly wage of $2.10 all of which is provided by their employer.

More than 75 company personnel are involved in this program which has 1 full-time director and one full-time assistant coordinator (the assistant is from the target population). There is no formal advisory council involved. Company personnel (personnel department, first-line supervisors and other middle management personnel) were given orientation training which was provided by the company's training department.

Recruitment for this program was accomplished through the schools, company recruitment in target neighborhoods, employee referrals and public or semi-public employment agencies. The screening procedures placed more emphasis on interviewing (two separate interviews at different times for each potential participant) than on the results of tests. Individual counseling is provided each participant on a regular basis and is concerned with family, social, attitudinal environmental problems as well as those problems encountered in job performance. Such counseling is available to participants after the training period with no imposed time limit.

The participants are assigned a co-worker to act as a job training coach. Each individual works an average of 13 hours per week with another 2 hours spent in classroom work. With a ninety percent (90%) completion rate the company has retained in their employ approximately seventy-five percent (75%) of those completing the program.

Although different standards are in effect for participants in such areas as lateness, absences and work performance (extended training period concept) there have been no complaints from the regular employees. The participants have presented other problems such as health and personal problems but these have largely been solved through counseling and referral to appropriate agencies, e.g., medical department.

The program has been in operation since 1964 and is expected to be continued. Of the 10% that did not complete the program 5% were dismissed because of personal or family problems and other reasons whereas 1% left to take another job, 1% because he was unable to meet training requirements, 1% because of being arrested and 2% for medical problems. Data regarding the present situations of the 156 individuals who completed the program are not available; however, the major reasons for those leaving employment after completion of the program are to start college, enter another career, to enter the military or to move to another area. The turnover rate of these individuals is significantly lower than the normal turnover rate.

The company considers this to be a relatively inexpensive program and feels that the greatest advantage of working with the schools is that of recruitment of participants. The greatest difficulty in working with the schools stems from the lack of full cooperation due to the system which is not geared to such activities. The greatest benefits to the company have been in the area of the "corporate image" and meeting staffing needs with qualified and motivated young men. The school on the other hand feels that the outstanding positive feature is that "this selected group has been encouraged to go on--they have found they can get involved in higher level work." In the opinion of the school representative the most serious negative factor is that the program is "not extensive enough."

General Electric's
Woodland Job Training Center

General Electric of Cleveland, Ohio, donated a large warehouse valued at over $5 million to the Cleveland School system to be used for a special job training program. The program is aimed specifically at breaking the poverty and welfare cycle in Cleveland's inner-city by reaching school dropouts and out-of-school youth who need training to prepare them for productive employment. General Electric is not the only participating company; the program is operated jointly by various participating Cleveland companies and by the schools.

The warehouse is located in the inner-city near the areas of greatest poverty. Its location plus its size (over 200,000 sq. ft.) make it ideal for the Job Training Center's objectives; the space and layout permit industrial production activities as well as classroom instruction.

Conceptually, the Center uses a three-dimensional approach which puts basic and remedial education, job skill training, and job placement together under one roof. The factory-school offerings are targeted toward three groups: (1) the 18 to 21-year-old dropout who wants to return to high school parttime; (2) the 16 to 22-year-old dropout who needs training for immediate job placement; and (3) the hard-core, inner-city, unemployed person who needs job training and remedial education. Participants work four hours a day on paid jobs in the Center; their remaining four hours are spent in classroom instruction.

The program enrolled its first participants in September, 1968; and, although it is too early for program assessment, it is felt that the Center will (1) develop a new source of manpower for local business and industry; (2) provide jobs immediately for the unemployed; (3) reclaim the school dropout and reduce dropout rates by making available more relevant training opportunities. The ultimate goal of the Center is to handle 500 dropouts annually. As one of the cooperating industries, General Electric expects to average 15 trainees at any given time in its light assembly and machining training.

Goldsmith's Program in Cooperation with Memphis City Schools

Goldsmith's Department Store, of Memphis, Tennessee, in cooperation with the National Association of Businessmen (NAB) and the Memphis school system's Distributive Education Department has instituted a program which is designed to bring "unemployable" persons up to the level needed to acquire and maintain a job.

The program idea was initiated by the NAB but Goldsmith's Training Department Manager, Mrs. Betty Chandler, wrote the program and has conducted the program in cooperation with Mr. Clifford Stockton, Distributive Education teacher at Memphis Carver High School.

This program was designed primarily to aid the inner-city minority disadvantaged of Memphis, a city of some 600,000,in learning saleable skills so that they could obtain jobs (almost all are hired directly by Goldsmith's).

In the initial program cycle, which included five persons, all were male and all were Negroes.

Goldsmith's paid all costs of the program, including the salary of Mr. Stockton for the time he spent at Goldsmith's. Some educational materials were provided by the school system.

Goldsmith's is a member store in the Federated chain, and in the summer of 1968 Federated called together a conference of training directors from all stores for the purpose of encouraging each training director to institute programs such as the one eventually initiated at Goldsmith's. Mrs. Chandler then developed the program on her own and enlisted the aid of Mr. Stockton for training and instruction.

The program was aimed at "unemployables" aged 22-45, who had been approved by the federal anti-poverty agency, but no federal funds were utilized.

All instruction was given on store premises. Initial orientation was conducted by the Training Director, Mrs. Chandler, and the company Personnel Director, Mr. Koch. Training *per se* was conducted by Mr. Stockton, who also led the "sensitivity sessions" held with both department heads (one hour a week) and the trainees themselves (at irregular intervals).

Final job placement was with the store, and the program was designed largely to fill available jobs within the store. Participants were not paid while in the program but were given "cleanliness kits" (deodorant, soap, etc.) and other small items.

Recruitment, screening, and selection for this program were handled primarily by the store. Names were originally submitted by the anti-poverty agency.

Counseling was a regular part of this program and continued throughout the six-weeks session. Follow-up is continued by the store itself.

No problems arose with the initial group (or the subsequent group) and the store intends to continue the program on a permanent basis. All graduates of the program are still with the store. The greatest positive factor was felt to be the effectiveness of the program itself and the high quality performance of Mr. Stockton in helping the trainees.

No negative factors were discovered, and the store is well-pleased with results.

Training and Technology Project

The Industrial Skill and Technical Training Program of the Training and Technology (TAT) Project at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, is a pilot program providing advanced level industrial skills and technical training of 52 weeks for the underemployed and unemployed in six occupational areas: physical testing technology; mechanical engineering technology; glass blowing; machining; welding (2 sections of 26 weeks each); and electronic technology. TAT has the dual purpose of providing fuller utilization of human resources while also filling some of the critical manpower needs of modern industry. It is based on the concept that excess training capacity of industry can be used in combination with resources of education and government to expand and expedite manpower training. The program is being conducted by Union Carbide Corporation, Nuclear Division; the University of Tennessee; and Oak Ridge Associated Universities in cooperation with the Tennessee Division of Vocational-Technical Education, and organized labor. It is supported by funds from the U. S. Department of Labor.

Program training is conducted on regular company premises. During the normal training cycle (6 to 12 months), approximately 225 participants are enrolled. Participants are paid weekly, subject to reduction for absenteeism, by MDTA (Manpower Development and Training Act) funds. Three hours per day are spent in classroom instruction while the remaining five hours are spent on the job. Individual counseling for program participants is provided on a regular basis and includes both academic and personal counseling.

The majority of the trainee population is white (59%) while the remainder consists of Negro participants. Seventy-five per cent of the population is within the 18-25 age group; the remaining 25% is aged 25 and over.

The company staff is comprised of 60 personnel, three-fourths of which work on a part-time basis. The school staff consists of 12 ORAU personnel.

A total of 524 trainees (85% of those who began the program) have completed this phase of TAT. Of those who have completed the program and are employed by the company, all are on the job for which they were trained. Turnover is approximately the same as among regular employees, and satisfaction is reportedly high. The program is considered to be relatively inexpensive since use is made of existing facilities and equipment.

As a result of the success of the TAT program, the Department of Labor and the Atomic Energy Commission (AEC) have approved a proposal for TAT, Phase II. Under this proposal, AEC and MDTA jointly support a program to find, prepare, and train local disadvantaged people to qualify them for entrance-level employment. Educationally deprived trainees are identified through a recruitment intake network of cooperative linkages with the Bureau of Work Programs and receive basic job preparation in mathematics, communications, and "trade science." About 200 trainees per year from these preparatory programs, along with trainees recruited elsewhere, will receive job training for six to twelve months, then will be placed on industrial jobs and will receive further specialized training.

PROGRAMS RELATED TO
OCCUPATIONAL PREPARATION
SERVING THE
KNOXVILLE-KNOX COUNTY AREA

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Knoxville State Area Vocational-Technical School.	7
Knoxville Manpower Skills Center (MDTA)	8
Division of Vocational-Technical Education.	9
Apprenticeship Opportunity Center	10
New Careers	11
Neighborhood Youth Corps.	12
Knoxville Opportunities Industrialization Center, Inc..	13
Training and Technology (TAT) Project	14
College of Education, UT.	15

Prepared by:

Occupational Research and Development
Coordinating Unit
909 Mountcastle Street
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

January 9, 1969

Title: Occupational Research and Development Coordinating Unit (ORDCU)

ID # 1

1 of 1

Location:
University of Tennessee
909 Mountcastle Street
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916
615-974-3338

Supervising Organization(s):
College of Education
University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

Source of Financial Support: University, State and Federal Funds

Director: Douglas C. Towne, Ph.D.

Other Personnel:

Summary:

AREA	POSITION	
Coordination & Administration	Director & Asst. Prof.	Dr. Douglas C. Towne
Research	Res. Associate & Asst. Prof.	Dr. William R. Schriver
Dissemination	Res. Associate	Roger W. Davis
Development	Res. Associate & Asst. Prof.	Dr. Trudy W. Banta
Development	Res. Associate	Linda G. Douglass

Special Projects:

Interpretive Study of Cooperative Efforts of Private Industry and the Schools to Provide Job-Oriented Education Programs for the Disadvantaged. Dr. D. C. Towne, Director, and Dr. Trudy W. Banta, Project Coordinator, assisted by Mr. Roger W. Davis, Mrs. Linda G. Douglass and Mrs. Ann M. Black

The Effect of Vocational Education on Employment Experiences in Tennessee. Dr. William R. Schriver and Dr. Roger L. Bowlby, assisted by Mr. Frank M. Murtaugh, Jr.

Title: Vocational-Technical Education - Knox County Schools

ID #
2
1 of 2

Location:
400 West Hill Avenue
Knoxville, Tennessee 37918
615-525-6261

Supervising Organization(s): Knox County Board of Education

Source of Financial Support: Local, State and Federal

Director:
Bruce M. Hinton, Director
Vocational-Technical Education

Other Personnel:
Vocational Curriculum Developer - Herbert Clement

Summary:

AREA	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
Agriculture	Doyle High School	Ornamental Horticulture	H. E. Gibson
Distributive Educ.	Carter High School	Marketing	Vickie Love
	Halls High School	Marketing	William Hartsell
Health Occupations	Doyle High School	Health Services	Teresa Sharpe
Home Economics	Carter High School	Homemaking	Catherine Bell
		Homemaking	Beth Stivers
	Doyle High School	Homemaking	Marie Freeman
		Homemaking	Susan Terry
	Farragut High School	Homemaking	Carrie Lou Gibson
		Homemaking	Judy Solomon
	Gibbs High School	Homemaking	Helen Calfee
	Halls High School	Homemaking	Lucy G. Cox
		Homemaking	Virginia Ramsey
	Karns High School	Homemaking	Sharon Coker
		Homemaking	Eloise Howerton
	Powell High School	Homemaking	Edith Tarver
Office Occupations	Doyle High School	Clerical	Rose Mary Pressly
	Farragut High School	Clerical	Brenda Graves
	Gibbs High School	Clerical	Wilma Helton
		Clerical	Edgar House
	Halls High School	Clerical & Stenographic	Carolyn Gose
	Powell High School	Clerical	Gail Burris
		Stenographic	Anna Bellamy

ID #
2
2 of 2

AREA	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUBJECT	NAME
Trade & Industrial Education	Doyle High School	Drafting	R. A. Buckner
		Cosmetology	Shirley
		Cosmetology	Walter McMillian
		Commercial Foods	Molly Heidel
		Sheet Metal	Donald Pirkle
		Radio Electronics	Curtis LaMarr
		Welding	Charles Rutherford
		Gen. Building Trades	Jim Satterfield
		Voc. General Shop	John Sopko
		Auto Body Repair	David C. Wood
		Auto Mechanics	Ernest J. Vineyard
	Powell High School	Auto Mechanics	Paul Kelly
		Vocational Welding	Claude Raby
Distributive Educ.	Doyle High School	Marketing	Kay Scholfield

Title: Vocational and Adult Education - Knoxville City Schools

ID # 3
1 of 2

Location:
101 Fifth Avenue, N.E.
Knoxville, Tennessee 37917
615-546-2251

Supervising Organization(s): Knoxville City Board of Education

Source of Financial Support: Local, State and Federal

Director:
E. N. Aslinger, Director
Vocational and Adult Education

Other Personnel:
Leroy Steinhoff, Supervisor of Ind. Arts andVoc. Educ.
Edna Bell, Coord., Adult Home Ec.
Peggy S. Long R.N., Coord., Health Occupations
Funson Edwards and Dewey Roberts, Suprs., Adult Evening High School
E. E. Garrison, Supr. Adult Distributive Educ.
E. R. Ward, Asst. Dir., Knoxville Area Voc.-Tech. School
Albert White, Coord., Evening Trade Ext. and Tech. Educ.

Summary:

AREA	NAME OF SCHOOL	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
Distributive Education	Austin & East High School	Marketing	Lorenzo Grant
	Bearden High School	Marketing	Frances Prince
	Central High School	Marketing	Marjorie Raby
	Fulton High School	Marketing	Wm. Mullins
	Holston High School	Marketing	Jean Naberhuis
	Rule High School	Marketing	Frank Smith
	South High School	Marketing	Bill Barger
	West High School	Marketing	Kay Fendley
	Young High School	Marketing	Bill Gheesling
Health Occupations	City Board of Education	Coordinator	Peggy Long
		Practical Nursing	Aileen Burkett
		Practical Nursing	Louise Loy
		Practical Nursing	Jo Ella McCall
		Practical Nursing	Ruth Smith
		Lab. Asst. Teacher	Gail Maner
		Lab. Asst. Teacher	Evelyn Bledsoe
Home Economics	Bearden High School	Homemaking	Bonnie Francis
		Homemaking	Dorothy Taylor
	Beardsley High School	Homemaking	Ruth Staffney
	Central High School	Homemaking	Martha Burnette
		Homemaking	Margaret Garrison
		Homemaking	Beatrice Irwin
	Fulton High School	Homemaking	Carolyn Cowan
	Holston High School	Homemaking	Pauline Hutson
		Homemaking	Juanita McMahan
		Homemaking	Dorothy Maynard

ID #
3
2 of 2

	Rule High School	Homemaking	Joanne C. Odell
		Homemaking	Mary R. Wilson
	South Knoxville High School	Homemaking	Janice Smoake
	Tyson Jr. High School	Homemaking	Dorothy W. White
	Young High School	Homemaking	Ruth DeFriese
		Homemaking	Reva Guinn
Office Occupations	Central High School	Clerical	Mary Sue Miller
	Fulton High School	Clerical & Steno.	Genevieve Smith
	Rule High School	Stenographic	Dorothy Clark
	South High School	Clerical	Doris Dyer
	Young High School	Clerical	Mary Clark
Technical Education	Austin & Fulton H.S.'s	Electrical Tech.	Dale Patterson
	Bell House School	Electronics Tech.	Russell Burnett
		Mechanical Tech.	Leslie Hamilton
Trade & Industrial Education	Fulton High School	Day Coordinator	James H. Harper
		Evening Coordinator	Albert A. White
		Drafting	Irene Beals
		Machine Shop	Hugh Bell
		Radio	John Clark
		Machine Shop	Ralph L. Davenport
		Auto Mechanics	Clifford Davis
		Electricity	Willard David
		Commercial Art	I. Richard Heath
		Woodworking	Robert Heck
		Machine Shop	James Holloway
		Radio Broadcasting	Joanna Huffman
		Related Science	John Kaserman
		Ind. Safety & Hygiene	Katherine Lusk
		Cosmetology	Pearl Lytz
		Printing	Charles C. McKenzie
		Refrigeration	Charley T. Odom
		Television	Dale Patterson
		Commercial Photo.	James Richmond
		Commercial Cook	Agnes Watson
		Related Math	A. H. Wilen
		Drawing	George W. Wright
		Cosmetology	Norma Vineyard
	Rule High School	Drafting	John Goforth
		Auto Mechanics	Charles Hood
		Ind. Coop. Training	Reed Hooper
		Cosmetology	Bessie K. Perry
		Electricity	Ulas L. Massinggill
	Austin High School	Auto Mechanics	Robert Anderson
		Commercial Art	Bennie Battle
		Tailoring	John B. Drewery
		Ind. Coop. Training	James Loy
		Woodworking	David Hutchinson
		Bricklaying	Jack Manning
		Commercial Cook	Charles Mathis
		Cosmetology	Elizabeth Woods
	Fulton High School	Special Needs	Mary E. Snipe

Title: Adult Home Economics

ID # 4
1 of 1

Location:
101 Fifth Avenue, N. E.
Knoxville, Tennessee
615-546-2251

Supervising Organization(s): Knoxville City Board of Education

Source of Financial Support: Local, State and Federal

Director: E. N. Aslinger, Director
Vocational and Adult Education

Other Personnel: Mrs. Edna Bell, Coordinator
Adult Home Economics

Summary: (Purpose, Population, Instruction, Program and Methods):

AREA	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
Home Economics (Adult)	Interior Design & Crafts	Ann Allred
	Tailoring	Henrietta Campbell
	Alterations	Beulah Edwards
	Apartment Management	Bon Farrar
	Food Buying & Cooking	Juanita Fasola
	Drapery Making	Trula Hill
	Crafts	Thylma King
	Dressmaking	Rose Nussbaumer
	Knitting	Jean O'Ryan
	Flower Arranging	Frances Bann

Title: Evening Technical Extension

ID # 5
1 of 1

Location: 101 Fifth Avenue, NE
Knoxville, Tennessee 37917
615-525-6310

Supervising Organization(s): Knoxville City Board of Education

Source of Financial Support: Local, State and Federal

Director: E. N. Aslinger, Director
Vocational and Adult Education

Other Personnel:
Albert A. White, Coordinator

Summary:

AREA	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
Technical Education	Electronics	David Baker
	Electronics	Russell Burnette
	Electronics	Leslie Hamilton
	Mechanical Drafting and Design	A. F. Massey

Title:

Evening Trade Extension

ID #
6
1 of 2

Location:

101 Fifth Avenue, NE
Knoxville, Tennessee 37917

615-525-6310

Supervising Organization(s):

Knoxville City Board of Education

Source of Financial Support: Local, State and Federal

Director:

E. N. Aslinger, Director
Vocational and Adult Education

Other Personnel:

Albert A. White, Coordinator

Summary:

AREA	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
Trade & Industrial Educ.	Drafting	Irene Beals
	Electricity	Thomas J. Bentley
	Electricity	Robert D. Butler
	Sheet Metal	Billy Byrd
	Arc. Welding	Bruce Cogdill
	Acetylene Welding	Russell Clark
	Electricity	Willard Davis
	Brickmasonry	Robert DeMarcus
	Power Sewing Machine Operation	John B. Drewery
	Refrigeration & Air Conditioning	John Farmer
	Machine Shop	James Holloway
	Electronics	Donald L. Holtzclaw
	Plumbing	Fred W. Holtzclaw
	Refrig. & Air. Cond.	Paul L. Holtzclaw, Jr.
	Carpentry	Hayney Laney
	Welding	Fred Lay
	Sheet Metal	Joe McCormick
	Sheet Metal	Howard McMahan
	Electricity	Ulas L. Massingill
	Arc Welding	Lloyd May
	Electronics	Ralph Moretz, Jr.
	Carpentry	Wayne Murr
	Electricity	Glen McMillan
	Iron Workings	Jack Rhea
	Blueprint Reading	William R. Star

ID #
6
2 of 2

AREA	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
	Blueprint Reading	Jack Styles
Trade & Industrial Educ.	Air Conditioning	Robert Symons
	Truck Mechanics	John L. Taylor
	Blueprint Reading	Jack Styles
Health Occupations	Pharmocology for LPN	Ruth Smith
	Pharmocology for LPN	Ima Majure
	Pharmocology for LPN	Julia Lawson

Title:
Knoxville State Area Vocational-Technical School

ID #
7
1 of 1

Location:
1100 Liberty Street, N.W.
615-546-5568

Supervising Organization(s):

Source of Financial Support:

Director:
E. N. Aslinger, Acting Director

Other Personnel:
E. R. Ward, Assistant Director
Jack Roach, Shop Supervisor
Charles R. Hale, Curriculum Specialist

Summary:

AREA	SUBJECT	NAME OF TEACHER
Home Economics	Food Service Management	Mable Cogdill
	Food Service & Institutions	Anna Lee Underwood
Office Occupations	Clerical	Maxine Crobaugh
	Clerical	Martha Wadell
	Clerical	Martha King
	Clerical	Mrs. Peters
	Teacher Aide	Ruth Brichetto
Trade & Industrial Education	Auto Mechanics	H. H. Ballard
	Refrigeration	John Clark
	Acetylene Welding	Russell Clark
	Arc Welding	Bruce Cogdill
	Appliance Service & Repair	J. D. Davenport
	Drafting	Robert DeMarcus
	Small Gas Engines	Emile A. Garrett
	Guidance Counselor	Jack R. Mitchell
	Machine Shop	W. N. Payne
	Radio & TV	Leonard C. Clough
	Shoe Repair & Leathercraft	Frank C. Richmons
	Industrial Electricity	Jesse Rouse
	Basic Electricity & Radio	Lauren R. Rutledge
	Auto Mechanics	J. C. Underwood
	Auto Paint & Body Repair	James T. Woodard
	Cosmetology	Naomi Oliver

Title: Knoxville Manpower Skills Center (MDTA)

ID # 8

1 of 1

Location:
1036 Emerald Avenue
Knoxville, Tennessee 37917

615-525-1131

Supervising Organization(s):

Source of Financial Support: Federal (Some local and State)

Director: Delbert L. Kitts, Supervisor

Other Personnel:

Accounting Clerk - Shirley Gamble

Summary:

AREA	POSITION	NAME
Trade & Industrial Education	Counselor	Robert Ridenour
	Arithmetic	Emma Edmonson
	Communications	Charlotte McCoy
	Commercial Cooking	Ellen K. Gentry
	Production Machine Operator	John Dobbs
	Co-op Program	Casville Caldwell
	Co-op Program	James Rex Roach
	Geriatrics	

Title:

Regional Office
Division of Vocational-Technical Education
State Department of Education

ID #
9
1 of 1

Location:

2111 Terrace Avenue
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

615-525-7307

Supervising Organization(s):

Division of Vocational-Technical Education
State Department

Source of Financial Support: State and Federal

Director: Larry L. Hyke, Regional Coordinator, East Tennessee

Other Personnel:

Summary:

AREA	POSITION	NAME
Agriculture	Regional Supervisor	Louis A. Carpenter
	Regional Supervisor	Cecil F. Boreing
Distributive Education	Regional Supervisor	Elmo Johnson
	Sales & Marketing Specialist	Lizzie Lee Furrow
Health Occupations	Regional Supervisor	Juanita Lutz
Home Economics	Regional Supervisor	Marie C. Hill
	Regional Supervisor	Kathryn Greenwood
Office Occupations	Regional Supervisor	Dorothy Draper
Trade & Industrial	Regional Supervisor	Max Edwards
	Regional Supervisor	Ted C. Smith
	Firemanship Training	George Hunt
	Job Training & Safety	C. G. Alexander
	Supervisory Training	John Judd
Manpower Development Training	Basic Education	Pauline Cole
	Project Development	James W. Wynn

Title: Apprenticeship Opportunity Center
Operation Outreach - A pre-apprenticeship training program to recruit, prepare and refer

ID # 10
1 of 1

Location: 718 Broadway
Knoxville, Tennessee
615-525-5151

Supervising Organization(s): Bureau of Labor
Washington, D. C.

Source of Financial Support: Bureau of Labor
Washington, D. C.

Director: Robert E. DeBusk

Other Personnel:
Jack Hill - Recruiter and Coach Specialist

Summary:

AREA	NAME
Basic Math	Bill Roberts
Reading Comprehension and Applied Science	Phyllis Cole
Reading Comprehension	Sandy Asher
Basic English & Communications	Robert F. Slaw
Testing	George Boudreau

Title: New Careers	**ID #** 11 1 of 1

Location: 301 West Cumberland
Knoxville, Tennessee 37902
615-523-3118

Supervising Organization(s): Community Action Committee

Source of Financial Support: Bureau of Work Training Programs
U. S. Dept. of Labor

Director: James C. Coates

Other Personnel:
Emmett L. Lloyd, Asst. Dir.

Summary:

AREA	NAME
Counseling	Mrs. Doris S. Crawford
Counseling	Mrs. Carolyn Ralston

Title: Neighborhood Youth Corps

ID # 12
1 of 1

Location:
301 West Cumberland
Knoxville, Tennessee 37902
615-546-3300

Supervising Organization(s): Community Action Committee

Source of Financial Support:
Bureau of Work Training Programs
U. S. Dept. of Labor

Director: Joseph T. Dirl

Other Personnel:
Out-of-school Proj. Dir. - L. W. Hargis
In-school Proj. Dir. - County - Benjamin T. Sterchi
In-school Proj. Dir. - City - John Dyer
Coor. of Educ. and Counseling - Mrs. May Lunden

Summary:

AREA	NAME
In-school Counselor - County	Richard Nelson
In-school Counselor - City	Kathleen Eldridge
In-school Counselor - City	Elta Booker
Out-of-school Counselor	Mrs. Jean Ann Harper
Out-of-school Counselor	James Greely
Out-of-school Counselor	Hubert Rucker

Title: Knoxville Opportunities Industrialization Center, Inc.

ID # 13

1 of 1

Location: St. Luke's Episcopal Church
600 Chestnut Street, SE
Knoxville, Tennessee 37914

615-546-3268

Supervising Organization(s): Board of Directors
Knoxville OIC, Inc.

Source of Financial Support: Local Funds

Director: Matthew A. Jones Sr., President of the Board

Other Personnel: Mrs. Sammye Wynn

Summary:

The Opportunities Industrialization Center (OIC) is being developed in Knoxville under the direction of Father Matthew A. Jones, Sr. OIC is a pre-vocational and vocational training program designed for the disadvantaged and operated to a large extent by persons from such populations. The objectives include training and retraining, for existing jobs, development of economic security, development of self-pride and keeping pace with changing technology while at the same time maintaining strong community involvement. The local program is part of a movement to establish such centers throughout the nation. The national offices are located in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania and provide assistance to local areas in developing and operating OIC programs.

Title: Training and Technology (TAT)

ID # 14
1 of 1

Location:
Administration - Oak Ridge Assoc. Univ.
P.O. Box 117
Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37830

Training
U.S. Atomic Energy Comm.
Y-12 Plant
Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37830
615-483-8411

Supervising Organization(s): Oak Ridge Associated Universities

Source of Financial Support: Dept. of Labor and Atomic Energy Comm.

Director: Wendell H. Russell

Other Personnel:
Ralph Pearson, UCCND, Training Director
David DeLozier, Management Asst.
J. Leo Waters, UCCND, Program Director

Summary:

AREA	NAME
Supportive Services	Jack Fritts, Supervisor
Welding	E. N. Rogers, Supervisor
Physical Testing	G. A. Burton, Supervisor
Machining	R. E. Dew, Supervisor
Mechanical Drafting	C. P. Tudor, Supervisor
Electronics	Frank K. Booth, Supervisor
Mechanics	Jerry Parker, Supervisor
Recruitment Intake Network	Tom Allen, Supervisor

Title:
College of Education
The University of Tennessee

ID #
15
1 of 2

Location:
Claxton Education Building
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916
615-974-2201

Supervising Organization(s):
College of Education
The University of Tennessee

Source of Financial Support:
University, State and Federal

Director:
Cyrus Mayshark, Associate Dean

Other Personnel:

Summary:

AREA	POSITION	NAME
Agriculture	Prof. & Dept. Head Agricultural Educ.	Dr. George W. Wiegers, Jr.
	Prof. Agricultural Education	Dr. David G. Craig
	Prof. Agricultural Education	John D. Todd
Distributive Education	Teacher Educ., DE	Dr. Caroll Coakley
Home Economics	Prof. & Head, Home Economics Education	Dr. Nell P. Logan
	Prof., Home Ec. Educ.	B. Jeanette Miller
	Prof., Home Ec. Educ.	Helen Stark
Office Occupations	Prof. & Head, Bus. Ed. and Off. Admin.	George Wagoner
	Assoc Prof., Bus. Ed. and Off. Admin.	Dr. Clarence Maze
	Assoc Prof., Bus. Ed. and Off. Admin.	Dr. Helen Taylor
	Assit. Prof., Bus. Ed. and Off. Admin.	Dr. Donald Reese
Trade and Industrial Educ.	Prof. & Head, Industrial Educ.	Joe L. Read
	Asst. Prof.	Don Riggs
	Assoc. Prof. and Dir. - Teacher Educ. Training-(TAT) Proj.	Dr. Donald V. Brown

ID #
15
2 of 2

Trade and Industrial Educ. cont'd	Instructor & Counselor in TAT	Gerald K. LaBorde
	Asst. Prof. & Chair. of Ind. Ed. Studies - Nashville	Terrence L. Powell
	Asst. Prof. & Chair. of Ind. Ed. Studies - Memphis	Carl McEntire

Occupational Research and Development Coordinating Unit (See ID#1)

TITLE: Conference on Cooperative Efforts of Business and the Schools to Provide Job-Oriented Education for the Disadvantaged

WHEN: January 29, 1969

WHERE: Room 132 - State Services Building
1525 Sherman Street
Denver, Colorado 80203

SPONSOR: State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education

Program--January 29, 1969

9:00 a.m. - Registration

9:15 a.m. - Welcome . . . . Dr. M. G. Linson

Introductions

9:30 a.m. - University of Tennessee Project . . . . Dr. Trudy Banta

9:55 a.m. - Keynote Speaker . . . . Mr. Marvin Buckels

COFFEE

10:45 a.m. - Panel--Business and Industry

Moderator . . . . Mr. Len Hergenreter
Honeywell, Inc. . . . . Mr. Mel Johnson
Denver U. S. National Bank. . . . Mr. Dean Lund
King Soopers. . . . . Mr. Robert Loury
Martin Marietta Corporation . . . Mr. W. H. Thompson

LUNCH

1:30 p.m.- Panel - Educational Agencies

Moderator . . . . Mr. James Burden
Denver Public Schools . . . . . . Mr. James Galloway
U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. . . . . .. Mr. Paul Strong
Latin American Research and Service Agency, Inc. . . . . Mr. Charles Tafoya
SER. . . . . .Mr. Ruben Valdez
Urban League . . . . .Mrs. Olga Thalley

2:45 p.m.- Group Discussions--Plans for Progress

COFFEE

4:00 p.m. - Group Reports
5:00 p.m. - Adjournment

COMMUNITY, SCHOOL, BUSINESS CONFERENCE
to Discuss Industry & Education Programs for
Benjamin Franklin High School

Date: Thursday, March 27, 1969
Place: Benjamin Franklin High School, Library
Time: 9:00 A.M. to 4:30 P.M.

SPONSORED BY THE FRANKLIN IMPROVEMENT PROGRAM COMMITTEE, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL, URBAN COALITION AND OCCUPATIONAL RESEARCH & DEVELOPMENT COORDINATING UNIT, UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

Conference Chairman - Mrs. Margaret Harris

AGENDA

9:00 to 10:30 Franklin's programs, problems & objectives

Speakers: Mrs. Ruth Atkins - Community Representative

Miss Karen Davis
Mr. Estaban Seaton - Student Representatives

Mr. Leonard F. Littwin - Principal, Benjamin Franklin H.S.

10:30 to 11:00 A.M. - Coffee break in Teachers Cafeteria

11:00 to 12:30 - Outline of Business Education Programs
Introductions by Dr. Trudy W. Banta,
University of Tennessee

Mr. Owen E. Fraser, Administrator
Program of Assistance to Public Schools
Chrysler Institute
Detroit, Michigan

and

Dr. Mel Chapman, Principal
Northwestern High School
Detroit, Michigan

Mr. J. Lester Blocker, Assistant Vice President
First Pennsylvania Bank
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Mr. Art d'Braunstein, Training Specialist
Manpower Development Department
North American Rockwell
Downey, California

12:30 - 2:00 P.M. - Lunch, available at
Delightful Restaurant
Northeast corner
First Avenue & 116 St.

2:00 to 3:30 P.M. - Workshops, in Library

There will be three workshops led by consultants to discuss possible programs for Franklin & ways & means of implementing such programs. Guests may attend the workshop of their choice.

3:30 to 4:30 - Sharing of Workshop results & evaluation of the conference

School Staff Members:

You are cordially invited to attend as your schedule permits.

APPENDIX C

Glossary of Acronyms

GLOSSARY OF ACRONYMS

ABE	Division of Adult Basic Education, OE, HEW or Adult basic education programs
AFDC	Aid to Families with Dependent Children (SSA)
APA	Assistance Payments Administration, SRS, HEW (formerly Bureau of Family Services)
BAT	Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
BAVE	Bureau of Adult and Vocational Education, OE, HEW (now Bureau of Adult, Vocational and Library Programs)
BAVLP	Bureau of Adult, Vocational and Library Programs, OE, HEW
BES	Bureau of Employment Security, MA, DOL
BIA	Bureau of Indian Affairs, Department of the Interior
BOP	Bureau of Prisons, Department of Justice
BWP	Bureau of Work Programs, MA, DOL (now Bureau of Work-Training Programs)
BWTP	Bureau of Work-Training Programs, MA, DOL
CAA	Community Action Agency (in local communities)
CAMPS	Cooperative Area Manpower Planning System
CAP	Division of Community Action Programs, OEO
CATP	Committee on Administration of Training Programs
CEB	Community Employment and Betterment (also called Operation Mainstream, or Nelson programs)
CEP	Concentrated Employment Program
CWT	Community Work and Training programs, SSA-Title IV (now Work Incentive Program)
DMDT	Division of Manpower Development and Training, OE, HEW
DOL	U. S. Department of Labor

E & D	Experimental and Demonstration Programs
E & SEA	Elementary and Secondary Education Act
EDA	Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce or Economic Development Act
EEOC	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
EOA	Economic Opportunity Act
EOC	Economic Opportunity Council
ES	Employment Service
HEW	U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
HRD	Human Resources Development (USES)
HUD	U. S. Department of Housing and Urban Development
MA	Manpower Administration, Department of Labor
MAREC	Manpower Administration Regional Executive Committee
MDTA	Manpower Development and Training Act or Programs authorized by above Act
NC	New Careers (also called Scheuer programs)
NMAC	National Manpower Advisory Committee
NYC	Neighborhood Youth Corps
OE	Office of Education, HEW
OEO	Office of Economic Opportunity
OIC	Opportunity Industrialization Centers
OJT	On-The-Job Training
OMPER	Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research, MA, DOL (as of Oct. 23, 1967, OMPER was abolished and its functions absorbed directly into the Manpower Administration)
PCOM	President's Committee on Manpower

R & D	Research and Demonstration Division, CAP, OEO or Research and Demonstration Programs
RAR	MDTA - Section 241 programs for Redevelopment Area Residents
RSA	Rehabilitation Services Administration, SRS, HEW (formerly the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration)
SBA	Small Business Administration, Department of Commerce
SER	Service-Employment-Redevelopment (Spanish-American Programs in the Southwest)
SI	Special Impact (also called Kennedy-Javits programs)
SP	Division of Special Field Projects, CAP, OEO
SRS	Social and Rehabilitation Service, HEW
SSA	Social Security Act or Social Security Administration
USES	United States Employment Service
VA	Veterans Administration
VEA	Vocational Education Act
VRA	Vocational Rehabilitation Act or Vocational Rehabilitation Administration (now Rehabilitation Services Administration)
WEP or WET	Work Experience and Training Program, EOA-Title V
WIP	Work Incentive Program, SSA-Title IV (formerly Community Work and Training)

Adapted from Greenleigh Associates, Inc. Opening the doors: Job training programs. Washington: Government Printing Office, May 1967.

APPENDIX D

Classification of Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Programs by Target Population and Program Type

Classification of Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Programs by Target Population and Program Type

Each of the various types of cooperative job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged is aimed at one or more of the following groups: (A) disadvantaged in-school youth (including those identified as potential dropouts), (B) school dropouts, (C) the hard-core unemployed, (D) present company employees, (E) prospective company employees (not necessarily dropouts or hard-care unemployed), and (F) school counselors working with disadvantaged youth. Numbers following the program description correspond to those associated with the program listing in Table 3.

A. Disadvantaged in-school youth (including those identified as potential dropouts)

1. Curriculum planning assistance (consultants and/or equipment provided by industry) 1, 14, 25, 35, 40, 48, 63
2. Industry visitation 36, 56, 57
3. School adoption 1, 2
4. Vocational guidance 22, 54, 58
5. Work experience and/or job training, and education 1,2,3,15,16, 18,24,30,32,33,37,41,47,50,51,54,66

B. School dropouts

1. Vocational guidance 22
2. Work experience and/or job training, and education 5,20,61,63,64

C. Hard-core unemployed

1. Job-training and education 4,23,29,49,52,63,64,65
2. Job-training and general orientation training 45

D. Company employees

1. Academic work leading to 8th grade or high school diploma 38
2. Basic education (English or communications skills and/or basic arithmetic) 28,34,38,59
3. Retraining (where skills have become obsolete) 48
4. Upgrading training 44

E. Prospective employees (not necessarily dropouts or hard-core unemployed)

1. Job fair 39
2. Pre-employment remedial education 7, 60
3. Pre-employment remedial education with skills training 8,10,55,62
4. Skills training only 9,11,13,17,19,31,42,43

F. School counselors

1. Vocational guidance institute 46,53,57

APPENDIX E

Classification of Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Programs by Type of Sponsoring Company or Organization

Classification of Cooperative Job-Oriented Education Programs by Type of Sponsoring Company* or Organization

(Numbers following company or organization designation correspond to those associated with the program listing in Table 3)

A. Contract construction:

  1. Building construction--general contractors 16

B. Manufacturing:

  1. Food and kindred products 10,38,42,59
  2. Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics 19,29
  3. Lumber and wood products 60
  4. Chemicals and allied products 33,34,62
  5. Rubber 8,57
  6. Stone, clay, glass, and concrete products 44,55
  7. Primary metal industries 18,23
  8. Fabricated metal products, except ordnance, machinery, and transportation equipment 9
  9. Machinery, except electrical 3,28,31,43,47,54,63
  10. Electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies 64
  11. Transportation equipment 1,14,52
  12. Professional, scientific, and controlling instruments; photographic and optical goods; watches and clocks 4,40,41
  13. Miscellaneous manufacturing industries 11,50

C. Transportation, communication, electric, gas, and sanitary services:

  1. Communication 2,7,15
  2. Electric, gas, and sanitary services 45

D. Wholesale and retail trade:

  1. Retail trade--general merchandise 17,30,61

E. Finance, insurance, and real estate:

  1. Banking 13,24,39,66
  2. Insurance carriers 5,36,37,49,51,56

F. Services:

  1. Miscellaneous services 22,25
  2. Automobile repair, automobile services, and garages 32,35

G. Sponsoring organizations:

  1. Rotary Club 20
  2. Chamber of Commerce 58
  3. Equal Opportunity Employers' Association 46
  4. Merit Employment Council 53

*The principal activity of the division conducting the cooperative program was used to classify companies according to the Standard Industrial Classification Manual, 1967, Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

APPENDIX F

Conference Evaluation Form

Conference Evaluation Form

For convenience the major parts of the conference program have been numbered as indicated below. Please rank, in order, the three (3) parts of the program which you feel contributed most to the effectiveness of the conference. In the blank to the left of the program part place a 1 beside the session you considered most effective, a 2 beside the second most effective session, and a 3 beside the third.

1	2	3	
2	3	1	Part One--Introduction
7	10	4	Part Two--Keynote address
4	9	9	Part Three--Panel of local businessmen
1	4	7	Part Four--Description of local disadvantaged population
4	2	5	Part Five--Local training and education programs
21	4	3	Part Six--Exemplary business/school programs
2	1	2	Part Seven--Discussion in small groups
1	3	2	Part Eight--Summary of group discussions

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The following statements concern specific parts of the conference program. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
1. In Part One the introductions made the purposes of this conference clear to me.	9	34	0	1	44
2. The purposes of this conference did not become clear to me until later in the day.	0	6	30	10	46
3. I never did fully understand what this conference was supposed to accomplish.	0	2	20	23	45

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
4. In Part Two the keynote speaker made some points that needed to be made at that time in order to get the conference started in the right direction.	17	26	1	0	44
5. The keynoter should have been a local person.	0	1	36	7	44
6. In Part Three the panel of local businessmen brought up many of the problems about which I would be concerned.	4	34	5	1	44
7. My problems were not mentioned until later in the day.	1	12	25	3	41
8. No one on the program ever did discuss the problems about which I am really concerned.	1	7	29	5	42
9. In Part Four I became aware of some local problems that I didn't know about before.	4	24	13	5	46
10. The speakers for this Part were well informed about local problems.	9	35	1	0	45
11. The ideas presented in Part Four were not essential to the accomplishment of the purposes of this conference.	1	7	20	11	39
12. In Part Five the method used to present information on local education and training programs was effective.	5	30	10	0	45
13. I didn't learn anything new from the Part Five presentation.	2	6	30	8	46

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
14.	In Part Six the method used to present information on the exemplary programs was effective.	14	25	5	3	47
15.	Representatives of the exemplary programs should have presented the information on their own programs.	1	13	3	1	18
16.	The panel of representatives of exemplary programs discussed the questions I wanted answered.	8	27	10	0	45
17.	There was no point in having the representatives of exemplary programs at the conference.	1	1	25	16	43
18.	The exemplary programs have no relevance for my situation.	1	3	24	14	42
19.	In Part Seven the group discussions were effective.	0	6	1	0	7
20.	The discussion leader did not perform effectively.	0	0	4	3	7
21.	I did not have an opportunity to express my ideas in the group.	0	1	4	1	6
22.	Some valuable concrete ideas resulted from our group discussion.	0	7	1	0	8
23.	Part Eight was handled effectively.	0	17	3	1	21
24.	No guide for future action resulted from Part Eight.	1	2	21	1	25

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C. The following statements concern the conference in general.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
25. The material presented in this conference was valuable to me.	14	30	1	0	45
26. Possible solutions to my problems were presented.	2	27	13	0	42
27. The conference objectives were not realistic.	0	2	29	11	42
28. The participants accepted the purposes of this conference.	3	40	1	0	44
29. The objectives of the conference were not the same as my own objectives.	0	6	35	1	42
30. Contacts which may prove helpful in the future were made during the day.	8	35	1	1	45
31. The sessions followed a logical pattern.	7	36	4	0	47
32. My time was well spent.	15	29	1	0	45
33. Participation in this conference will have an effect on the way I think about certain matters in the future.	10	30	4	0	44

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ERIC REPORT RESUME

Title: Interpretive Study of Cooperative Efforts of Private Industry And The Schools To Provide Job-Oriented Education Programs For The Disadvantaged

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Institution: University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee, College of Education, Occupational Research and Development Coordinating Unit

Abstract

This study embodies three major components: (1) an extensive literature review on the topics of job-related problems of the country's disadvantaged population and the federal and industrial programs designed to help solve these problems; (2) a nation-wide survey of cooperative efforts of private industry and the schools to provide job-oriented education for the disadvantaged; and (3) three seminars, one in Knoxville, Tennessee, one in Denver, Colorado and one in New York City, designed to acquaint businessmen, educators, and other civic leaders in these communities with materials developed in the course of the study so that they might be encouraged to initiate cooperative job-oriented education programs of their own.

Two questionnaires were used to gather information from the school and from the company involved in 64 exemplary industry-school training programs for the disadvantaged. The majority of these programs are in the nation's largest cities, but through dissemination seminars such as those in this study business and the schools in smaller communities should be encouraged to team up to make vocational training more relevant to the world of work, thus making life in their communities more attractive and curbing migration of the disadvantaged into urban slums.